

THE SCHOOL REVIEW

A JOURNAL OF SECONDARY EDUCATION

VOLUME XVI
NUMBER 4

APRIL, 1908

WHOLE
NUMBER 154

THE INFLUENCE OF THE PRESENT METHODS OF GRADUATE INSTRUCTION ON THE TEACH- ING IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS¹

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The secretary of this association when he assigned me this subject instructed me to present a brief paper which might form the basis for a general discussion rather than a somewhat lengthy one dealing with the various phases of this interesting topic more in detail. I will endeavor to follow these instructions as best I can.

The influence of our colleges, through their requirements for admission, upon the curriculum and the teaching in our secondary schools has been very great in the past and is still quite marked. To the colleges must be credited very largely the establishment of laboratories in our secondary schools and the consequent reform in the teaching of the natural sciences. The colleges have also in recent years greatly stimulated the study of English and of the modern languages in these schools. That this "domination of the college," as it is termed, is, however, not always wholesome, is indeed, in some respects to a marked degree harmful, is a familiar fact; but I take it that this is not a part of the topic under discussion.

¹ Paper read before the annual convention of the Association of Colleges and Preparatory Schools of the Middle States and Maryland, held in New York City, November 29 and 30, 1907.

What is the influence of present methods of graduate instruction on the teaching in secondary schools?

The main function of the graduate schools in American universities, as indeed also in those of Europe, seems to be to train teachers for the universities, the colleges, and the secondary schools. Are the methods of instruction in these graduate schools as effective in training teachers for the secondary schools as they confessedly are in training teachers for the universities? Or do the general aims of these three types of institutions, and the degree of maturity of their students, require each a somewhat different training for its teachers? In what respects does the present training in our graduate schools meet the special demands of teachers in our secondary schools and in what respects does it fail to do so? These seem to be the questions suggested by our subject.

Comparatively speaking, only a few teachers now teaching in secondary schools have done any graduate work at all. But there is no doubt that the effect of such graduate work upon those who have enjoyed it has been to elevate their ideals of scholarship, to give them a more thorough grasp of the subjects which they are teaching, and to develop in them more strictly scientific methods of study than mere collegiate training can give. But does it adequately fit them to present the subjects of the secondary-school curriculum as they should be presented to the relatively immature minds of the boys and girls who attend these schools? If not, wherein lies its weakness and what is the remedy?

I will try to suggest tentative answers to these questions as a basis for fuller discussion, and I will do so briefly and—for the sake of brevity—dogmatically.

1. The best graduate schools in this country as in European countries make it their chief aim to train the student in methods of scientific research, and require of him a thesis for the Doctor's degree which shall not only prove his familiarity with scientific method but shall also make an original contribution to human knowledge. It is quite true that this ideal is frequently not realized, yet it determines the method of instruction; and it

makes it necessary for the student to confine his special investigation to a very limited portion of a single science.

It is a commonplace to say that the thorough investigation of a single problem in any science necessarily touches upon many phases of that science and upon related sciences; yet such study of the broader field of science is only incidental to the particular problem to be investigated by the student, does not give a true perspective of the field as a whole, and does not arouse an interest in it. Such thorough training in a limited field, involving a high degree of specialization, is just the training required to fit the student for the position of teacher in a university and of the upper classes in a college, but it fails to give that broad interest in and mastery of a group of related sciences which fit a teacher to do effective work in any one of them in a secondary school. In our large city high schools specialization among teachers has already gone too far. It has the effect of narrowing their interest and finally their scholarship; for in a secondary school the treatment of all subjects must be quite elementary, and the relations between the various subjects must be constantly brought out. A teacher of physics should be prepared also to teach chemistry, geology, and astronomy; a teacher of Greek or Latin should be prepared to teach either language, and also Greek and Roman history. He will teach these languages the better if he also teaches classical history, which will enable him to give the historic setting of the literature which he is reading with his classes. It has been said that George Washington to many people is nothing but a steel engraving; we must see to it that in teaching Latin Caesar is not merely a book called the *Gallic War* and Cicero a certain number of orations.

2. The highly specialized training of the best graduate schools seems to make it difficult for the young teacher to view his work from the standpoint of his pupils rather than from that of his subject. It is absolutely necessary that the chief interest of the teacher in a secondary school be in his pupils rather than in his subject; and the perennial source of interest in secondary-school work must be in the new problems which each new class,

and indeed each new pupil, presents more than in any researches which the teacher has the time and strength to make in his special field. A teacher in a secondary school whose deepest interest is in his subject will find, after a series of years, secondary-school work exceedingly disappointing and uninteresting. Such work is altogether too elementary to be a permanent source of inspiration from the standpoint of scholarship, and it is altogether too taxing on one's strength, because of its amount, to make it possible privately to pursue one's specialty in its higher departments. A teacher who is required to teach Latin or mathematics for five hours during the day is not likely to read Tacitus or study the calculus in the evening for pleasure. In short, in the secondary school, as in the elementary school, the teacher's interest must be in his pupil more than in his subject, and it would be well if this were more the case in our colleges than it is; while in the university, where the student is mature and is prepared for advanced specialized study, the interest of the teacher may well be chiefly in his subject.

3. To the immature mind interest in natural science, and to a large extent in mathematics, lies not in the pure science but in the applications of the science to the phenomena of nature and to our industrial and social life. The establishment of laboratories in our secondary schools, while it was a great step in advance, has not developed after all an interest in science to the extent it was hoped it would. Compared with the total attendance, the classes in physics in our public high schools are phenomenally small and have been decreasing for a series of years. Biology has never been a popular study. The classes in chemistry are also relatively small. Now the natural sciences are intrinsically interesting to pupils of the secondary-school age if well taught; and when they are not, the teaching is at fault. In our laboratories the pupil makes his experiment, observes the result, formulates a generalization, and writes it in a notebook. That, in most cases, is the end of it. He does not know what his generalizations mean beyond the fact that they seem to explain the phenomena observed in the experiment, and these phenomena are neither intrinsically interesting nor excep-

tionally important to him. If, on the other hand, the teacher would take these laws and principles formulated in the laboratory out of doors and lead the pupil to use them as a key to unlock the mysteries of physical nature and of life, they would acquire a meaning for the pupil and an interest which they cannot possibly have as mere generalizations. There is more educational value, to an immature mind at least, in knowing one principle in physics and seeing fifty applications of it in the interpretation of the phenomena of nature or the facts of life than in knowing fifty principles as mere generalizations of the laboratory. There is no reason, for example, why in physics the whole of meteorology in its elements should not be taught, for it is little else than applied physics. In like manner chemistry should be taught in its application to everyday life; and biology should be treated in a way to show its practical application to agriculture, the industries, and to the problems of personal and public hygiene.

In short, the sciences should be taught as applied sciences to beginners in secondary schools for the purpose of arousing a deep interest in them; in college and the university they may be taught in their more abstract form as pure sciences; and in the higher technical school they must necessarily again be taught as applied sciences for practical reasons.

In like manner mathematics can be made to appeal to pupils of secondary schools much more strongly if the application to the conditions of life are emphasized at every point, before they are studied in their abstract or pure form. The present movement among teachers of physics and also among teachers of mathematics to make these studies more real and more vital in secondary schools by relating them to life is one of the most hopeful movements in secondary education that has developed in recent years.

Now, my contention is that the graduate instruction in our universities does virtually nothing to fit a teacher to teach either science or mathematics in this vital way in secondary schools. It may even be possible that the highly specialized training of the graduate school, to a certain extent, unfits the student to do

this sort of teaching. However that may be, I state a well-known fact when I say that not one in fifty of the men and women who take the Doctor's degree in science or in mathematics has the least conception of the problem before him when he begins teaching in a secondary school.

4. In literature the training in our graduate schools is too analytical, too philological and critical to give a student the best preparation as a teacher in a secondary school. In this respect the training in our graduate schools, together with the requirements of admission to our colleges, largely vitiates the teaching of English in our secondary schools. It is true that the colleges and universities have aroused a deeper interest in English in secondary schools, but they have done virtually nothing to point out a better method. We might say in a general way that the methods of the university and of the college have got into our secondary schools and vitiated the teaching of English. These methods are not always good even for college and university students, and they are very generally bad for secondary-school boys and girls.

Literature is essentially art, and it must be taught as art. It must be made to appeal powerfully to the imagination and to the emotions; it must hold up before the pupil's mind right ideals of life, must interpret life to him, and must minister to his spiritual development. Indeed, in its higher functions it is closely allied to religion as a factor in the pupil's spiritual growth.

Now, literature cannot be made to appeal to the pupil in this way when treated analytically, philologically, or critically. To treat a work of art in this way in presenting it to immature minds is to destroy it as a work of art. We do not get the meaning of the Venus de Milo or the Apollo Belvedere by making a chemical analysis of the marble, nor the meaning of sorrow by knowing the chemical ingredients of tears and the physiological mechanism of the sigh.

To present literature in this vitalizing way it is above all necessary that the teacher be a person of artistic rather than scientific temperament. As the scientific temperament is usually unfitted to produce literature, so it is generally unfitted to teach

it; and when a person attempts to teach literature in a secondary school, as sometimes happens, who is neither scientific nor artistic in his temperament, it is much easier to foretell what he will not do than what he will do. He who has no poetry in his own soul cannot make poetry vital in the life of others.

In the next place, the interpretation must be artistic, not scientific; it must be concrete, must present living wholes, not dissected parts. The most effective interpretation of literature is the artistic oral reading of it, and every teacher of literature in a secondary school should be a good reader. Literature should be so taught as to create a deep love for it. Analytical and critical methods do not accomplish this in secondary schools. Even in our adult years when we wish to read for pleasure we instinctively avoid the school editions of the English classics with their pedantic, impertinent footnotes.

While I am not competent to criticize in detail the teaching of literature in our graduate schools, I know that the teachers trained in these schools do not as a rule teach literature as art when they begin work in secondary schools; they emphasize altogether too much the critical, analytical, and historical phases of the study to make it mean what it should to boys and girls in their teens.

This treatment of literature involves necessarily also the careful selection of what is to be read with special reference to the needs of immature pupils. This is a matter which it may not be the province of the graduate school to deal with, as it is primarily a pedagogical problem; and yet the graduate school might at least impress upon the student who is to go into secondary-school work the importance of the problem, and the college might help to solve it by prescribing the right kind of literature in its admission requirements. It is difficult to determine on what principles much of the English now prescribed by the colleges for secondary schools is selected except that it must be out of copyright and must lend itself readily to examination purposes.

What are the remedies?

I venture to suggest, in a purely tentative way, the following as possible but perhaps only partial remedies.

1. The graduate school might make a distinction between two classes of students—those who are fitting themselves to teach in universities and colleges, and those who are preparing to teach in secondary schools. The former might be required to limit their study to a narrow speciality, to carry on an exhaustive research, and to produce a thesis which not only shows a mastery of scientific method but also gives evidence of productive work and makes a contribution to the science to which it relates. The latter might be allowed to work in a broader field, to acquire a fair mastery of several related sciences, without being required to specialize narrowly, and be permitted to present a thesis which gives evidence of their having made themselves familiar with the methods of research in the subjects which they expect to teach without requiring them to make any strictly original contribution to their specialty.

No university lives up to its ideals to the extent of requiring in all cases an original contribution to science for the doctorate. The number of brilliant discoveries made by young doctors of philosophy is remarkably small. What I am advocating is therefore not a lowering of the present standards of graduate work, but rather a frank recognition of these standards as they actually exist, and an intelligent discrimination between these two classes of students.

If it should be objected that this would make the promotion of teachers from secondary schools to universities very difficult, it might be said in reply that such promotions are so rare in this country, and in Europe as well, that this is a wholly secondary consideration.

2. The treatment of literature as art in our graduate schools, at least in the case of students who wish to fit themselves for positions in secondary schools, might profitably be emphasized more than it is.

3. It would probably not vitiate, much less contaminate, as some persons imagine, the teaching of pure science and pure mathematics in our graduate schools, if some considerable em-

phasis were laid incidentally upon their application, at least in the training of teachers for secondary schools.

4. As a student and teacher of pedagogy I am probably far from impartial when I suggest that the most important remedy would be to oblige every student in a graduate school who wishes to teach in a secondary school—or in a college—to study education both as a science and as an art, and make himself familiar with the best methods of teaching the subject which he is fitting himself to teach. In Prussia such training is a universal requirement of all candidates for positions in secondary schools, and the day is not far distant when the same requirement will be made in the progressive states of this country. The rapid development of departments of education and schools of education in our colleges and universities indicates that there already exists a wide recognition of the need of such training. Many teachers in colleges and universities have, however, in the past, not looked with much favor upon the department of education, and some of them still view it with a certain misgiving such as one naturally feels in the presence of the unknown; but more light is also bringing more sweetness, and their attitude is becoming steadily more friendly as these departments are growing in efficiency and in strength.

SOME RECENT CONTRIBUTIONS TO MORAL EDUCATION

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It is many years since Professor Adler gave us *The Moral Instruction of Children*¹ which it is to be hoped he will take time to bring out in a new edition, for, however much difference there may be in opinion between him and some others interested in this field, the results of his practical efforts, extending continuously over more than a third of a century, cannot fail to be of value to all.

A frequently quoted opponent to definite moral instruction is Professor Palmer,² who declares: "Many matters do not take their rise in knowledge at all. Morality does not." His test of the time when this instruction may be given, when one finds "one class of duties in conflict with another," might receive varying applications according to the views held of child life and its conditions. Theory and practice, ethics and morals, seem to be two well-separated fields and the rôle of consciousness in practical life very small indeed. "Only so much teaching, accordingly, is needful as will habituate the child to a responsive respect for institutions, accustoming the uneasy individual to adjust himself naturally to a moral order already existing."

Professor Adler in various places has shown how much stress he lays upon "protected environment," "the standard set, the truth asserted by the superior mind that has traveled over the ground before the pupil." "There is dogmatic assertion in the first instance and verification afterward." But he has also constantly asserted that the aim of this instruction is "a novel and radical idea, to develop persons who will be competent to change their environment to greater conformity with moral ideals—to

¹ "International Education Series," Appleton.

² "Can Moral Conduct Be Taught in Schools?" *Forum*, Vol. XIV, p. 673.

train reformers who will react beneficently on environment." One naturally looks to see what room there is for this idea with Professor Palmer. He has not overlooked it, but states that the pupil is to be "ready to offer such subordinate criticism or readjustment as will tend to make the whole more harmonious."

Among other works of later years, Professor Griggs's book³ has had a wide circulation. It may be well to recall the principles he lays down: (1) "The gradual substitution of an integrating end of conduct for the mere push and pull of desire as the cause of action;" (2) "The gradual extension of sympathy or personality over an ever-widening area of life."

The most definite contribution to the subject, taking into account the many factors involved, is "Ethical Principles Underlying Education,"⁴ by Professor Dewey. In this he uses the two view points—the social, "membership of the individual in a whole which is larger than himself" and the individual, "who may not only adapt himself to the changes which are going on but have power to shape and direct these changes." The development of the individual is treated with reference to force, responsiveness and sense, or judgment.

The literature of the subject is increasing rapidly both in Europe and America. Professor Griggs's bibliography gives over five hundred titles. The works of Professor Foerster have had a wide circulation, especially in German speaking countries. The French are redoubling their efforts, and books, articles and charts are appearing in that language, in rapid succession. Japanese material grows apace, but is not as yet easily gotten at. Many prominent English educators have delivered addresses recently on the subject. In England and America have been organized societies to deal with the problem, and Dr. Sadler is the moving spirit in an organization which is arranging for an investigation of what is being done in all lands.

With these facts and efforts in mind the following chance collection of books has been reviewed. With one exception they have been published recently, and in them there is a suggestion

³ *Moral Education*, New York: B. W. Huebsch, 1904.

⁴ *Third Herbart Yearbook*, 1897.

of the wide range of topics which must be taken into account in a discussion of moral education.⁵

I. *Pupil Self-Government*. By BERNARD CRONSON. New York: Macmillan, 1907. Pp. 104. \$0.90 net.

II. *Moral Training in the Public Schools*. By RUGH and others. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1907. Pp. 203.

III. *The Training of the Human Plant*. By LUTHER BURBANK. New York: The Century Co., 1907. Pp. 99. \$0.60 net; postage 5c.

IV. *The Bible as Good Reading*. By ALBERT J. BEVERIDGE. Philadelphia: Henry Altemus Co., 1907. Pp. 94. \$0.50.

V. *The Natural History of the Ten Commandments*. By ERNEST THOMPSON SETON. New York: Scribners, 1907. Pp. 78. \$0.50.

VI. *The Teachings of Thomas Henry Huxley*. By IRVING WILSON VOORHEES. New York: Broadway Publishing Co., 1907. Pp. 85.

VII. *A Primer of Right and Wrong*. By J. N. LARNED. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co., 1902. Pp. 167. 70 cents; postage 7c.

VIII. *The Efficient Life*. By LUTHER GULICK. New York: Doubleday, Page & Co., 1907. Pp. 195.

I

Pupil self-government has become a much-used term in recent years. It means many things ranging from a prefect system in a girls' school in England in which the prefects assured me, "Oh yes, we are elected by the girls, but the teachers always cook the returns of the election before we see them;" or from the merest delegation of a little authority, corresponding to the old monitor system, to anarchic conditions not unlike those described in Tolstoi's experiences. Dr. Cronson has given us a definite account of an interesting experiment in a New York public school. He knows what questions arise in the inquirer's mind, and for the most part he answers these clearly. He has given careful consideration to the relation existing between moral or ethical training and this form of government. In this connection he points out, not with sufficient clearness, however, the difference between his system and that of Mr. Wilson L. Gill of the Patriotic League of America with whom he has co-operated. Many readers of this book are not sufficiently acquainted with

⁵ Attention is called to an important work reviewed by Mrs. Spencer in the *School Review*, for March, 1907—*Everyday Ethics*, by Ella Lyman Cabot (Henry Holt).

Mr. Gill's position on the subject and an explanatory paragraph would be helpful.

The thesis of Dr. Cronson's work is that a certain amount of training in right conduct is an essential prerequisite to the introduction of the scheme. "Mere knowledge of the machinery of government—even the participation in it—will not make the child truly self-governing." This is consistently carried out. It is distinctly understood that the right is conferred upon the pupils. The beginning is made when a charter is conferred by the principal. There is a "predestined" course of evolution. There must be first an impression—"the ethical phase, a pre-conceived moral standard," and then an expression—"the civic phase, self-government." "Obedience is the main element in moral training." "Cheerful obedience" is emphasized and "intelligent, voluntary obedience" is looked for as a result of this training. Dr. Parkhurst is quoted with approval:

Therefore to know that every moral act that man or child can perform has a fixed statute definitely relevant to it, is the very alphabet of ethics; and it is because so much of our home-training is skipping this alphabet that children are growing up without the ability to understand the paragraphs and chapters of this matter, and that the home becomes the nursery of adult anarchy.

The key to the whole matter appears in Dr. Cronson's statement: "The true value of the child is found not in his childhood, but in his latent manhood." It is not surprising at this stage that the Formal Steps are found to be the most adequate figure by which to carry on the discussion.

It is the conception of a self waiting for outside stimuli to impress it, precepts and their application, preparation for life, and thorough mastery of the alphabet before reading. This brings to the front the important part played in a child's life by the outside world, imitation, the adult, and the tool. There is need, however, for us to remember that in the matter of means and end the child is not entirely the former and the man the latter—each is one or the other, or both according to the functions under consideration. The adult has never traversed exactly the course which the child is in, and, even if he had, he

is not *this* child. He can help but he must also be helped, and he too must be learning. (The author's practice rises above his theory in a number of these matters.) The alphabet, rules, laws, decrees, charters, constitutions, punishments, are indispensable tools and there are occasions when one feels that some of them may most economically come from without, just as he would snatch a child from a locomotive's path, but the act in that case, however wise and necessary it may seem to be, is less justified by its educative value than by other considerations.

There is no under-valuing Dr. Cronson's interesting organization and report in wishing for other forms of experimentation and equally adequate reports showing the conceptions of school government as a larger whole—a series of processes each a means to another; as a method of developing forms that fit needs and functions rather than the imitation or illustration of the forms developed by other bodies. We need studies of the ways in which pupils participate in government even where there is supposed to be autocratic rule, of the forms which their energies take when what seem to us natural outlets are denied them. One of the valuable contributions to this subject has been that of the "group-work," of Dr. Colin A Scott, now of the Boston Normal School. His book on *Social Education* will be out this spring. This latter experiment has had a wide range involving elementary, secondary, and normal students. It is to be hoped that other efforts in schools above the elementary will be put into book form.

Dr. Cronson does not make the mistake of substituting "pupil" government for "teacher" government. The term "pupil government" seems to indicate a strange division of labor. The problem of a mutual recognition of the functions of each other by pupils, teachers, parents, and other school persons is not an easy one. It is also evident that the author is not one who thinks that he will rid teachers of work by this device. On the side of the outworking of the scheme there are some interesting glimpses of the way boys and girls rise to meet responsibilities and throw into new tasks their undivided energies. In and through it all shows the personality of the founder—recalling

the father in *Swiss Family Robinson* or the benevolent patron in Pestalozzi's classic.

II

A citizen of California recently offered prizes of five hundred and three hundred dollars for essays on "Moral Training in the Public Schools." The committee having the award in charge, Rev. Charles R. Brown, of Oakland, California, President Jordan of Leland Stanford Jr. University, and Professor Dressler of the University of California, has published besides the two prize essays the three which stood next in rank. The book as a whole deserves a wide circulation. Between them the essays serve to introduce the reader very fairly to our present problems. This is in itself an important service quite apart from whatever value the suggestions made for next steps may have.

The first prize essay by Principal Rugh of Oakland shows a large amount of reading and considerable thought. It is not as easy reading as some of the later essays; more attention to style and form would have increased its usefulness—for instance, there are but two paragraph breaks in the first four pages.

It is not easy to show what is contained in this paper—a discussion of "Individual and Social Development" is followed, in the order given, by "Means and Methods," "Educational Solution," "Authority and Obedience," "Principles of Moral Growth," "Ethical Aim in Education," "The Subjects of Instruction as Means," "Maxims, Their Power and Use," "The Recitation," "Leadership," "Punishment and the Reformation of the Wrongdoer," "Socializing the School as an Institution." The section on punishment is the longest and most elaborately worked out. It shows much ingenuity and is perhaps on the whole too systematic—one feels that not enough consideration is given to individual differences in both pupils and teachers, as in the matter of writing out a statement of the offense. The fourth essay shows a larger view of this problem.

There is much reference to other writers on moral instruction, but one of the best sections would be better appreciated

if the author's evident indebtedness to Dr. Dewey had been stated. Despite the modern authors consulted there is here and there a tendency to old forms of expression, as in the development of the "idea," the statement of "truth," etc. Professor Adler's work is criticized; but more weight would be carried if familiarity was shown with his later working out of the course of study. (The name of the organization, by the way, is Society for Ethical Culture, not *of* as given in this essay.) It seems a little odd for the winner of a prize essay to condemn the use of prizes in schools because their conditions do not carry over into life.

The second prize was awarded to a Philadelphia minister, who sees clearly that the state may not lean upon the church without leaning upon all the churches and thus aid in supporting instruction in the doctrine of churches which he does not approve. The explicit statement of relation to a First Cause is a matter of much importance to him. Right means "according to the will of God." "To a man who does not believe in God the oath is meaningless, and useless." Justice Brewer's decision in 1892 that "this is a Christian nation" he quotes twice with much satisfaction and exhibits many customs and statements in support of this position. To give support to an *a fortiori* argument he goes farther back and shows how even such a "heathen" as Cicero "maintained that the state is inherently religious."

All this leads to the true and adequate solution:

Let the state teach in her public schools the system of morality which is embodied in her own laws, with such sanctions as the religious character of the state herself supplies. In so far as the state has a moral character, that character will be found expressed in her laws, and these laws, with the reasons that support them, the state may and ought to teach. It would not be necessary, in compliance with this proposal to bring cumbrous digests of laws into the schoolroom. There is a broad and plain distinction between laws which deal with moral duties and are designed to cultivate and strengthen moral character, and the great body of laws which relate to other matters.

Mr. Stevenson does well to emphasize this means of instruction but rather as a part than as a whole. The German schools make excellent use of the laws of the land for teaching purposes, and Dr. Adler includes a course in state laws as a part of his

high-school curriculum. In neither case does the religious aspect come out as it does in this scheme. One is at first impressed that the "solution" resembles Richard Whiteing's recent advice to read only new books for they contain all the best of the old. "But the thoughtful teacher will be surprised and delighted to find what a body of material is here afforded for his use. The right of worshiping God, so carefully guarded in every bill of rights, implies the duty of worship," etc., etc. The laws are to be studied in order to find the ten commandments in them, "and since these moral laws on our statute books have been derived, actually and historically from the moral laws of the Holy Scriptures, the Ten Commandments ought to be taught in our schools as the best and most authoritative summary of moral duties known to men or nations."

There is the immediate appeal to authority. There are many even among the "infidels," "atheists," and members of objectionable sects, troubling the author, who wish to have the Ten Commandments and other biblical material used and yet are unwilling to have it weighted down with authority. Its real power will be apparent. Give children a chance to find out the strength of our old race formulations and give the formulations a chance to stand on their own merits without so many props and bolsters.

But a still larger class will object to carrying this authority over to our present statutes. "The effort should be to convince every child of the wisdom, justice, necessity, and goodness of every moral law on the statute books of the state." It is one thing to be obedient to the law and yet have an open-minded spirit of criticism for progress, and quite another to regard our Albany and Springfield solons as channels of absolute authority. Despite the cry against the present disrespect and irreverence of our rising generation (a cry repeated with each generation through the ages of history), we must remember that children are conservative. However ready they are to make a breach in authority and infallibility in particular cases, as are we who are older; like us also they fall back upon it as a bulwark in most of the course of their lives. But even the British navy is

coming to teach its members that the obedience desired makes use of intelligent criticism. The immediate order must be followed out, but future orders may be improved.

The author can easily show that he stands for progress, but it would seem that he needs to restate his essay in order to give it a better setting. It is to be hoped that he will also give a statement of a course showing adaptation to various ages, etc.

Professor Starbuck's contribution is more readable than some of the others—he is evidently more at home in the literature of the subject and more careful to show whose work he is using. He gives a brief and very general outline of a course of instruction at the close of his discussion of fundamental principles.

Mr. Cramer's discussion is full of common sense and will be suggestive to teachers and parents who read it. There is evidence of knowledge of actual school conditions, an appreciation that individuals differ, circumstances alter cases, that "the common people need both facts and penetrating power," that one is responsible for his own ignorance. "The best friend of conscience is the habit of keeping alternative courses of action in mind while decisions are being made." "It is only by making our children moral thinkers that we can provide the basis of virtue on which alone the public stand; that we can correlate responsibility with our freedom." "The safest decision is often reached by dropping the subject."

Schoolboy honor, the fraternity system in secondary schools, and other situations which are to many other teachers difficulties, are to him signs and resources as well. He stands for systematic instruction, but this means something very different in a man who sees the school life as a whole so clearly and in such wide ranges.

The last essay in the book summarizes the work in moral instruction in American, German, French, and English schools. In this Mr. Myers has made a real contribution, for one can in a few minutes' time get at the main facts regarding what is being done in the various countries—an important factor in any attempt at

doing. The remaining pages discuss briefly a wide range of problems in the light of this comparative study. Especially noteworthy is the emphasis upon the physical basis of morality, and "the immense number of means available for moral training." Evidently personality is the central factor and it shows the unusually comprehensive view of the writer in that he sees how the school janitor is a moral factor of consequence.

III

To many in Europe accounts of Mr. Burbank's work are "American stories" subject to great discount, the fact that he lives in the extreme West affording him, in their minds, greater power of romancing. For us who have followed from the days of the Burbank potato to the latest news about the cactus, there is a peculiar interest in this material, which first appeared in magazine form and now appears as a book. The central thought is the meaning of the mingling of races which America now exhibits. To a mind trained to observe the significance of the crossing of species of plants the great blending of peoples now going on, with the still greater commingling that is certain to come in the next generation or so, is a matter of remarkable possibilities.

Although he discusses the union of plants from far-apart sections with characteristics as definitely set as possible, he does not deal directly with the mixture of various races as the negro, Chinese, or Indian with the white. It would seem that the widely separated offer better results through union than do the closely related. He is very emphatic in his discussion of the evil results of the marriage of cousins, particularly those who are brought up in the same environment. In this he differs from recent writers like Hobhouse, who does not seem ready to consider this case proved.

Whether one agrees or not with the author's reduction of heredity to an accumulation of environment, he cannot but appreciate the way in which heredity becomes here a fact to be used rather than a mysterious something on which to throw responsibility. The crossing of species is like the interchange of thought

with its resulting criticism which has made possible our modern science. Mr. Burbank looks for an outcome to our present hit-and-miss blending equal to that hoped for by the English advocates of eugenics. The weak point comes in that most serious educational problem—that of the less fit. Plants can be burned and animals destroyed, but the less fit among men he will redeem by environment, controlling in so far as he can their reproduction. It is noteworthy that he takes occasion to demand that the state care for all defectives, dependents, and delinquents, allowing no sectarian claims. Our present method of sorting out orphans according to creed and alternating unknowns does seem primitive.

The main purpose of the book is no doubt to furnish suggestions to parents and teachers in bringing up children. Physical conditions are helpfully considered—it is recognized that the city is no place for children. In calling for a freedom from school up to the age of ten the author avoids the mistake of seeming to take from adults responsibility for association and teaching during these years.

IV

There is a general appreciation of the many influences which are bringing us to a wider and more serviceable use of the Bible. We are not trained to quote its passages so ostentatiously as has sometimes been the case. This is deplored by those who wish to have immediate evidence that a student's diet has contained Greek, Latin, and divinity. Ability to quote is little evidence of vital union.

Senator Beveridge has evidently read the Bible. He has probably had that great experience of rediscovering it which no doubt Bosanquet had in mind when he discussed the advantages that would arise from a total loss of it for a generation or so. It is doubtful, however, whether this little book will lead many thoughtful persons to a better acquaintance with the Bible. The faults rather than the merits of the author's oratory appear in the style; the organization is rambling; there is considerable slang, usually in quotation marks to disclaim responsibility, I

suppose; throughout appears a tendency to use the superlative which reminds one of Benevenuto Cellini and arouses a feeling that the statements made are subject to discount.

There is occasionally an assumption that the Bible is able to stand on its own merits, but this position is constantly overshadowed by the supernatural and loses its force. If the Bible is to be treated on the same basis as other literature that position should be maintained; if it is to be given special privileges then it ought not to be compared with the unprivileged. The "scholarly interpreters" and "higher critics" are lumped together and bowled over by means of a few words early in the book. A wide range of writers from Epictetus, Marcus Aurelius, and Omar to Poe, Conan Doyle, and Sherlock Holmse, are called into court somewhat unexpectedly, only to be told that they cannot write anything that compares with the Bible. The reader is urged, however, to read Emerson daily in subordination to the Bible. He is surprised to learn that "the only worth-while study of our Redeemer is that of Renan." We learn that David had a "peaches-and-cream complexion," and that Isaac was "the first gentleman described in all the literature of the world." Jacob was a closer observer than modern nature writers for he "by an absurdly simple device trebled his wage of ring-straked cattle." Elsewhere there is evidence of belief in very immediate control through pre-natal influences.

V

Mr. Thompson Seton's thesis is: The Ten Commandments are not *arbitrary laws given to man*, but are *fundamental laws of all highly developed animals*. He divides them into the two groups, man's duty to a Supreme Being and man's duty to man. Beginning with the fifth commandment he organizes a considerable amount of notebook material to illustrate his thesis with reference specifically to the last six and in a general way to the first four.

It is fortunate that the author is not dogmatic in his method—he does not strain the application of an illustration, but rather points out the difficulties. But one is puzzled over the theology

of the book, for in this attempt to show that the most concrete case of "handed down" revelation is a development, on the first page he says, "More than one heathen philosopher conceived creation as a tree with its roots in the nether world, its fruit in the skies. Had these men been other than heathen, we today might have called them inspired."

This confusion of positions (evident more seriously in the book by Senator Beveridge) is one of the most important facts to be taken into account in any consideration of moral and religious education today. It must be reckoned with and not merely objected to.

The work is a contribution to "direct" instruction but many who believe that this form has a place will doubt whether children will get as much material for whatever philosophy of life they may need to formulate in childhood from this method of treatment as from other of the author's tales where the application is not made so directly for them. *Haec fabula docet* is not a difficult formula to use and we are by no means through with it.

VI

For many of us it is difficult to realize the prejudice that has existed and to some extent, still exists against Darwin, Huxley, and Spencer. They have been considered as embodiments of influences making against religion and morality. How far the change of attitude toward them marks a real advance in larger thinking and how far it is a matter of becoming accustomed, is not easy to determine. One of the effective means of making progress in thinking is accomplished by gaining an understanding and use of scientific method. Many teachers have found the works of Darwin and Huxley to be valuable to this end, especially those passages in their lives which show the attitude of these scientists toward particular problems. A little book by Cramer entitled *The Method of Darwin* was welcomed a few years ago because it brought together in convenient form some well-selected material of this kind.

It is perhaps due to an expectation that Mr. Voorhees had

done a like service for Huxley that explains in part a feeling of disappointment that comes with the reading of his little book. One wonders just what service it will accomplish. There is evidence of considerable reading and study. There are sections dealing with biological, theological, educational, moral, psychological teachings, but the same amount of time spent in reading in the autobiography or in the *Life* by Huxley's son would give a better idea of these topics than this book affords. More Huxley and less comment, or rather less explanation, would be better appreciated. Mr. Huxley criticized adversely the acquirements of students entering the university; the commentator states that this could easily be remedied by increasing entrance requirements. Mr. Huxley did not think much of ordinary methods of examination; the commentator takes a page to give his own opinion (favorable) upon examinations. Usually, however, the two agree, but the thought of the master does not gain in restatement by the student.

VII

A simple, straightforward statement of matters of everyday living makes up Larned's *A Primer of Right and Wrong*. Terms used are carried back at once etymologically to their natural physical beginnings; the habit of doing this of itself simplifies many discussions on moral questions. There is a clearer presentation of the relation between intention and consequences than is found in Mr. Rugh's essay, for instance, and, while the book in a sense centers in the problem of self-government, the social implications are not overlooked.

The author is well-known for compilations he has made and, in this work, perhaps the most valuable sections are those which give examples and opinions he has gathered, citing Franklin's curious recording of faults and virtues, Washington's warning against the spirit of party, Cicero on the morals of trade. Besides these James, Emerson, Faraday, Scott, Lowell, Curtis, Lincoln, and others are quoted from or told about sufficiently to give the reader material for thought or illustration; it may be of more value than some of the "reasoning" in other parts of the book, although the writer saves himself on the whole from preaching.

Both teachers and pupils can use this primer for reference purposes to advantage. I should be glad to know the results of its use as a textbook. It is always a pleasure to find that a book has the self-respect and expectation of being used more than once to cause its author to furnish an index.

VIII

The most important book in this collection is Dr. Gulick's, *The Efficient Life*. It deals primarily with physical conditions, but each chapter has a definite bearing upon questions of moral growth and character development, whether it discusses exercise, diet, waste, fatigue, sleep, stimulants, the bath, pain or vision. The chapters on "Speed," "Efficiency," "Life That Is Worth While," "States of Mind and States of Body," "The Body Shows Character," "Vitality the Armour of Offense," and "Growth in Rest" are still more closely connected with our subject. The book is having, deservedly, a wide circulation and is proving helpful to readers of all ages. It may well be used for reading purposes in grammar and high-school classes and in clubs, while students of hygiene and psychology will profit greatly by acquaintance with it. The common-sense view taken throughout is in itself an aid in moral training. One is tempted to quote extensively, but the book is so well worth reading entire that a review of it should serve rather to call or recall attention to it than to take the place of reading it.

PROFESSIONALISM AND TRUTH-SEEKING

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Present-day education is not without its problematic features, not merely in its elementary phases, but as well in those aspects of it which appear in our higher institutions of learning. It is not difficult for one who reflects soberly to find, at almost every turn, practices and ideals which may fairly be criticized. The general situation should, however, be viewed calmly and with an effort to discover its positive aspects, rather than, as the manner of some is, so excitedly as to be unable to do otherwise than hurl upon it wholesale condemnation.¹

It is a platitude to say that the educational practices of a people are quite closely related to its economic, political, and in general to its social life. The correspondence is not of course complete, for the machinery of education possesses a certain unwieldiness and a kind of inertia that render it difficult for it to adjust itself rapidly to changing conditions and ideals in the social context. Moreover, when the adjusting movements are at length actually started this same inertia frequently causes equally serious maladjustments in the opposite direction. To this preliminary consideration we wish also to offer that, inasmuch as our educational conditions are a part of our present social development, it is about as useless to ask whether we can stem the educational tide as it would be to consider the same question with reference to old ocean.

We in educational work today face a situation that is very little of our own making. Educators who preceded us contributed something to it, and the general development of society contributed still more. We can do a little to modify it, but not much, and our chief consolation is to try to see that it is not as

¹ E.g., R. M. Wenley, "Can We Stem the Tide?" *Educational Review*, Vol. XXXIV, p. 241.

bad as its hysterical critics would have us think. If there is any good in present directions of movement, we can evidently accomplish more by throwing our atom in with the current than by trying to effect some other supposed good so unrelated to present lines of movement as to necessitate their stoppage through the setting up of counter currents. The latter course of action would be hopeless, while the former may not be altogether so, at least.

We shall attempt to answer the above question only with reference to one portion of the seemingly irresistible tide which bears down upon us, namely, the spirit of professionalism, which more and more pervades the arts departments of our universities. Two criticisms are frequent: First, the drift into professionalism has greatly reduced the time given to really liberal and humanizing studies, and hence the most general effect has been to greatly narrow the intellectual horizon of the average student. In the second place, the professional interest is subversive to true scholarship, because of its tendency to prevent one from being a real truth-seeker, opportunism, expediency, and commercial standards generally, all combining to make the learner see the world with perverted vision. Not the truth, it is held, but more or less refined forms of personal gain are sought after.

Now we wish, at the very outset, to admit that both of these tendencies exist today in connection with professionalism in university undergraduate education, but we wish to raise the question as to whether they are inseparably connected with that type of education, or whether liberality of training and a *true scholarly attitude toward truth* may be the outcome of even professional training, when its possibilities are more fully developed.

In relatively advanced stages of social development it is impossible that the full significance of the method and content of the current educational procedure should be apparent to the casual observer. The past is inevitably at hand, for ill as well as for good, to mystify as well as to clarify. Educational practices are not, under these conditions, the entirely spontaneous expres-

sion of the people's social life that they tend to be in earlier ages. In the earlier stages of social development, the educational practices are more definitely and clearly related to what the people feel to be their dominant needs. The things taught fit directly into the life the child is expected to lead when he comes to maturity. The studies are practical; none others would be imaginable, at least no one would think of suggesting any others. It may be argued that such is not the true function of education, but, in any case, this is the type of educational practice which grows up in a situation into which there has been carried over the least from the past, in which there is not a great body of traditions from a previous epoch of culture. That a course of study based directly upon practical conditions is truly cultural, the results of the old Athenian education are proof that is splendid and unequivocal. Evidently professionalism as such, in education, has not *always* deprived it of its cultural value. As the conditions of life change, and they inevitably do, it matters not here whether for better or for worse, the traditions of the past are bound to remain. In the new order the needs met by the old studies are not precisely what they were in the past, and yet these old studies are remembered to have been most cultural and humanizing, and the necessity of their continuance is argued from that ground. A most vital fact is apt to be overlooked, namely, that much of the cultural value of this old curriculum grew out of the fact that in it there found expression so clearly and so convincingly the life that was then being lived, pulsating as it was with problems and vital with interests.

The problem of the course of study is at best a gigantic one, and it is such partly because it is so difficult for us to free ourselves of the notion that there is something inherently sacred in subject-matter, as such, rather than in the growth of the learner; and partly also because it is literally hard to reconstruct, hard to read aright the new needs, hard to work out new presentations of human knowledge which shall adequately take the place of the old studies. Hence, in the face of honest efforts to bring forth a new interpretation of life more akin to what we are

actually living, there are many who are ready to point to the excellence of the old, as if, in some mysterious way, in its content and in its method, it were *intrinsically* cultural and humanizing. The obvious answer to such a plea is that the difficulty with present educational conditions is not exactly where the advocates of the older practice imagine it is; it is not in the fact that there is a tremendous development of interest in vocational subjects, or professional education, but in the failure, on all sides, to appreciate the real bases of culture. Culture inheres in no particular subject-matter, but arises from the method of approach to any and all subject-matter, from the way the individual finds himself in this subject-matter. We believe, moreover, that the professional studies usually pursued by the undergraduate as part of his arts course are distinctly liberalizing, potentially at least. That many do not, in their university work, obtain that broader humanized view of life, we do not deny, but we hold that the difficulty does not lie altogether in the professional subjects but in large degree in the false attitude toward them on the part of both instructor and student, *to a lack of appreciation of the truly liberalizing opportunities they afford.*

In order to make clear what these opportunities are, let us try to state to ourselves what a profession really is and in what a professional training may be said to consist. It may not be altogether trite to say that a profession is a particular line of human activity, and that, as such, it, presumably possesses an organized body of fact peculiarly its own. Much of the subject-matter comprised in the so-called non-professional courses belongs also to the professional ones, *some* of it was once *strictly* professional, and it is only because vocations have multiplied and differentiated that their particular systems of knowledge are now no longer the peculiar property of any single life-calling.² It is further true that a generous portion of human knowledge

²It is not without significance for us here that the present content of the distinctly non-professional phases of the arts department is the lineal descendant of distinctly professional courses of three or four generations ago. Our American colleges, offering them an even narrower training than that afforded today, were professedly schools for the prospective minister, lawyer, teacher, and physician.

has accumulated quite explicitly with reference to various sorts of practical situations, so that whether it has ever been organized into a discipline for some particular professional training or not, it nevertheless has somewhat of the dust of the conflict upon it, it is even *bourgeoisie*, if you please to call it so. Now, as to just why some of this truth should have gotten separated from the rest and have come to be regarded as good in itself, is a curious psychological story into which we shall not enter here. There is, in any case, no good reason for making a qualitative distinction between so-called pure truth and the knowledge which serves practical purposes.

Since there are not different qualities of truth, it can scarcely be held that a really liberal training or a just sense of the proportionate greatness of affairs can be obtained from some particular phase of truth or some particular class of subjects. To be sure, human knowledge varies somewhat in its capacity to elevate one's spirit and it is safe to say that a training in but a single sphere of human thought, whether that be pedagogy, Greek, philosophy, natural science, or what not, would be narrowing, for certainly breadth of outlook and appreciation of relative values can come only, other things being equal, through a fairly wide acquaintance with the different lines of human endeavor and achievement. *Other things equal*, we say, and the other things are by no means to be ignored. They consist for one thing in one's *method of approach* to what he studies. *He* is not educated liberally who possesses merely some particular systems of facts, however great they may appear to be; rather he who has grown, who has developed into a new man in the course of his getting the facts. Or, more properly speaking, ready-made facts are never obtained by anyone, and true education is not a process of endeavoring to impart them. My facts are of my own construction, the product of my own efforts, no one has really ever given them to me. They are the outcome of my reaction upon various situations and problems which have genuinely confronted me. My mental structure is largely a direct index of the extent to which I have really lived and struggled with problems that have been actual to me and of the

extent to which I have been changed through the struggle. The liberalized and humanized attitude, if I have it, is likewise a construction of my own, and not something I may possibly have learned offhand. Any subject-matter, provided it is human and lies fairly close to life, is capable of producing educative results that are truly liberal as far as they go. Of course a liberal training cannot be obtained through studies limited to a narrow field, whatever the reputation of these studies as humanizers, whether Greek, pure mathematics, or unapplied science. One's training must surely have breadth of content, and while some subjects have more content than others, no subject can be said to contain all that one needs in adjusting his "bearings with some approach to poise and justice." Some fairly broad acquaintance with human culture is necessary, to be sure. A single study can contribute only a little, and some studies are more limited than others in this respect. Our point is that *every study is capable* of being liberalizing as far as its particular content goes, provided only the real man is in some way stimulated through coming in contact with it and that, as far as lies within it, it furnishes him the raw material and stimulus for growth.

This brings us to the second objection to professionalism in the work of the undergraduate. Is not this educative process, which is really growth, increase in power of some sort for the learner, really limited by the fact that his objective point is more or less practical? It must be *truth for its own royal sake*, we are told, or *pure truth*. The truth obtained through the professional course is always distorted by the practical interests of the quest. It must be admitted that this accusation, to a certain extent, is and has been justified. But here we would raise the question as to whether a biased and narrow view is inseparable from one's pursuit of practical ends, or whether it is simply an unfortunate circumstance due to other causes than the practical objective. To be sure the object of the quest is not truth for its own royal sake, but truth as a tool—a tool for what? For the acquisition of dollars, we are often told, and this doubtless completely describes the case as far as many are concerned. The

difficulty here, however, is certainly not with the practical, *per se*, but with the *particular variety* of the practical in which, to the exclusion of all else, the individual seems to be able to express himself.

What is really the essence of *the practical*, and what is a *practical* problem? Is it related altogether, in more or less subtle ways, to what concerns food and raiment and such like? A more fundamental conception of the practical is rather that it is the quality of those things which are felt to have some connection with our efforts to work out ourselves, i. e., to express our impulses primarily, and later our developed personality. This expression of personality finds outlet in part in the quest for food and raiment. For an all too large number of people, rich and poor, the personality is quite fully expressed through endeavors to obtain these basic forms of satisfaction. But even so, we are not to find here the complete philosophy of the practical. A goodly portion of humankind also work *because they are by nature active beings*, beings seeking expression. We are made to be doing something and the things we do of necessity lie partly along the line of mere sustenance, but it does not follow that all else we do is at least indirectly related to these elemental needs. Our several vocations and professions are certainly in a measure pursued because they are avenues along which we can work out ourselves in a variety of ways, for the life is more than meat and raiment. A goodly number of the long-suffering pedagogues teach, not merely to live, but because they love to do so and because they find in the varied activities falling to them a genuine expression of themselves. So with the farmer, the business man, the lawyer, not to speak of the minister. The work itself is attractive, the coping with adversaries in man and nature, with disease, with human frailty, the conquest of enemies, the solving of problems, the making of discoveries—it is in these things that people find opportunity to express themselves; this is what makes up life, and the practical is that which is related in some way to the furtherance of the process, whether it be prompted by the desire for food or whether it includes also other phases of the personality. The

prevailing scorn of all that savors of the practical by certain types of scholars seems to start from the assumption that the whole significance of the practical is to be summed up in the mercenary and commercial, while the real meaning of all human endeavor, professional as well as otherwise, is to be found in the fact that it is the expression of that which is within us.

Now, there is certainly no good reason, *a priori* at least, for asserting that he who is interested in truth as a means for working out himself, under which type of activity those which are called professional may fairly be classed, is particularly apt to fail of a just or fair vision of the truth. Taking truth as it is popularly conceived, we may surely assert that these are times in which, on every hand, there is rapidly developing a respect for and a demand for careful as over against careless and hasty views of situations which confront us. For the opposition, by the way, as far as we try to state it in our everyday doings, is never between the true and the false. We never deliberately choose the false. A more proper account of ourselves is that our moods vary from the careless to the careful, and the question we usually consciously decide is whether we shall be cautious and exacting in what we do, not whether we shall choose the course of truth rather than that of error. The truth-seeker is really the person who chooses, definitely and habitually to abandon the careless attitude in the sphere of activity in which he is engaged. Why, then, should the so-called practical pursuits be particularly unfavorable to the development of truth or of true conceptions of life and its values? They involve problems of relationship, of manipulating diverse elements, of marshalling chemical, physical, biological, and human factors in ways to bring about results of one sort or another. Do not the exacting conditions of modern life foster at every turn the careful attitude of mind, or to put it philosophically, the hearty respect for that which is true, the proper understanding of relationships and values, if you please? We are fast leaving the age when ignorance, or a one-sided view of a practical situation is desirable if one expects to cope with it successfully. Practice today *necessitates* truth, and a broad view of truth, too. If we

narrow the professional courses to include only what appears superficially to be needed at a particular moment, if we make them simply hodgepodes of scattering, unorganized, and distorted facts, we can scarcely assert, at any rate, that the practical needs of the present demand it.

There is, however, a real danger which the instructor and student alike must guard against in a professional course. It is easy for one to become so absorbed in the overt activities involved in such a course as to gain the impression that he is fulfilling *all* its requirements. It is easy to overdo any form of physical activity just because, when it is once started, it acquires a momentum of its own and seems to offer unlimited opportunities for the consumption of time. A beginner in any sort of shop work, for instance, may find himself so deficient in the elements of mere technical skill, that this aspect of his preparation for his profession may tend to consume all of his time and attention. The same thing may easily hold true of the student in chemistry or medicine and even in law. Every profession demands more or less attention to concrete details, but there is certainly no excuse, from even the most practical point of view, if the instructor of this student does not try to lead him out of this empirical stage into a more thorough comprehension of the broader requirements of his future vocation. As Professor Woodbridge said, in a recent number of the *Educational Review*, it is in the tendency to memorize or do mechanically without an appreciation of the meanings involved that we may find "the chief reason why education in industrial, technical, and professional subjects is so often despised as not making for culture." But such training *would be cultural* if meanings and relations were really worked out, if the getting of the subjects involved actual intellectual grappling with the principles involved. Surely the exigencies of practical life demand just such breadth of training.

In view of these things, we would seem to be laboring under a curious delusion if we think that more adequate conceptions of values and of the truth itself can be obtained when it is taken out of all relationship to human endeavor. Of course truth can

never really be completely separated and considered as an entity sufficient unto itself. As we have tried to point out, the primary fact about ourselves, whether we are pure scientists, transcendental philosophers, or practical men, is that we are all working out ourselves in some way, and the respect we acquire for truth is related to this working-out process. There are not two kinds of truth, one, a baser sort, related to these processes of human endeavor, and another type of purer quality, which exists, as far as we are concerned, only as an object for our contemplation and admiration. The same mental attitude of care, of respect for proper relations and just values, may be present in anyone who is *at work* in any true sense. True, the horizon is broader for some workers than it is for others; with some it is limited by food and raiment, but in any case the *type* of activity is, or may be, the same, whether it be that of *savant*, or horse doctor, and for either type the same liberalizing effects are not *intrinsically* impossible. In neither case is it limited by the opportunity or narrowed by necessity, but only by the man himself and his way of going at it. It is the privilege of every teacher of a professional subject to present it in such a way as to be productive of real growth, greatness of spirit, in the learner, and there is always the possibility that a teacher of the so-called non-professional subjects, the humanizing subjects, may present them in such a manner as to produce pedants, men of distorted vision with totally inadequate conceptions of the meaning of life and human relations.

When it comes to the question of who has the view from the angle of least distortion, who shall decide between the pure scientist or the philosopher and the one who studies to use? The vision of truth for its own royal sake may be and probably is as distorted as is the vision of the practical man. Cut it loose from the world of human relationships and problems and it is not quite the same truth as that which helped us over our difficulties. That it is more truly and characteristically perceived under the former conditions is yet to be proved. It is just possible that the men in Plato's allegory who came at last out of the cave and from looking at the shadows of reality

to a vision of absolute truth were, after all, turning their backs upon the real and coming only to a contemplation of the shadows.

What we urge, at any rate, is greater respect for the despised practical problem, a recognition of the fact that even the *bourgeoisie* is not without its redeeming features, that a part of the difficulty lies in our taking for granted that it is *merely* commercial, *merely* bad.

THE PROGRAMME OF STUDIES FOR HIGH SCHOOLS

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At the recent conference held at the University of Illinois an outline programme of studies for high schools was adopted. The conference of November 21, 22, and 23 was the fourth in the series. The subject for consideration at all these conferences has been the programme of studies, and will continue to be for an indefinite time to come. In the various section meetings the work centers about the courses to be offered in the various subjects, methods of treatment, equipment, etc.; while in the general sessions the arrangement of courses in a programme of studies is the basis for discussion.

It is hoped ultimately through this co-operation plan, in which all educational interests are invited to participate, to work out a practicable basis for unification, as far as such a thing is practicable or desirable, of the high-school work of the state.

It will be understood from this statement of the plan of working that it was not within the function of the committee having in charge the formulation of the report as given below to do more than to propose what subjects should be given in respective years, what should be the order of sequences and what the basis of determining prescribed and elective work. The detailed descriptions of courses and their treatment are being worked out by the sections of the conference.

The problems presented to the committee were, first the great diversity now existing in the programmes of Illinois high schools; second, the necessity for formulating what is now practicable rather than a programme based solely on philosophical considerations, and therefore ideal, perhaps, to such an extent as not to be practicable; third, the insistent demand, coming from every quarter, for the introduction of industrial features into the secondary programme.

It was felt that the first formulation of a programme under such conditions could be only general and tentative. It was also believed that by beginning with what is now practicable we might trust to future development for the working out of the more progressive philosophy of the subject. The report was therefore submitted with the full expectation that it is to be open for trial, discussion, and revision year by year.

The present unsettled condition with regard to the elementary programme helped to emphasize the need of such a course of action. In view of these conditions the committee undertook to accomplish four things, especially, in this purely tentative formulation: First, to give expression to what may be called the well-defined thought of the present as to what ought to go into the programme of the present existing high school; second, to group these subjects by years, thus in a measure determining sequences; third, to suggest the things which should be prescribed, and the lines along which elections should be made; fourth, to provide rather definitely for those high schools which are too small to be able to offer electives.

It is hoped that this very general and preliminary presentation of a programme of studies for Illinois high schools, with suggested types for varying local conditions, will lead to such full and free discussion and application among our high schools as ultimately to result in a much more unified system for our secondary work.

The committee by which the report was prepared is composed of the following: Principal E. U. Graff, Rockford; Principal F. D. Thompson, Galesburg; Principal J. Calvin Hanna, Oak Park; State Superintendent Francis G. Blair; Professors Frank Smith, S. S. Colvin, and H. A. Hollister of the University of Illinois. Over one hundred and fifty schools were represented in the conference by which the committee's report was adopted. Following is the report:

The following arrangement of the subject-matter for high schools is believed to embody as much of advanced thought in regard to the work of secondary schools as can be used in establishing a present working basis for unification of the high-school programme of studies in Illinois.

The work here outlined assumes that pupils entering high school have had a reasonably good elementary training. If they have been so trained as to get a sufficient command of the arts of the school for working purposes as related to high-school activities they may do the work if due attention is given to their limitations at the start. If, in addition to this, they have acquired some sense of perspective in historical movement; have had enough conscious, directed contact with the society about them to give them some means of interpreting historical records; have gained a fair degree of familiarity with the great names of history and with something of what they stand for; and if they have acquired some ability to record, classify, and generalize as a result of their contact with nature, they will be fully capable of carrying forward the work as here arranged.

DISTRIBUTION OF SUBJECTS BY YEARS

First year—

English, composition and classics.

Mathematics, elementary algebra developed from arithmetic.

(To such schools as find it feasible it is suggested that algebra and geometry be given as parallel courses.)

Latin, beginners.

German, grammar, simple stories, and conversation.

History, ancient.

Science, general elementary¹ taught in connection with one or more of the usual high-school sciences such as physiography, physiology, etc., and botany.

Drawing and art work.

Manual training.

Music.

Physical training.

Second year—

English, composition, and rhetoric with classics.

Mathematics, plane geometry.

(To schools which find it feasible it is suggested that algebra and geometry be given as parallel courses)

Latin, Caesar, or second-year book with composition.

German, stories, grammar, and composition.

History, European or ancient.²

Science, zoölogy or physiology, or each a half-year.

Manual training.

¹ Not needed where good work in nature-study is done in the elementary schools. In that case botany may run through the year.

² In case but three years are offered, ancient history may come in the second year.

Agriculture.
Drawing and art work.
Music.
Physical training.

Third year—

History,³ English, with history of English literature.
Theme work and debate based on history. Outside reading of historical classics.
Mathematics, geometry, and algebra.
Latin, Cicero and composition.
German or French or Spanish.
Commercial geography.
Science, physiography or chemistry or physics.
Manual training.
Agriculture.
Business training.
Domestic science.
Music.
Physical training.

Fourth year—

English, classics with theme work, rhetoricals. Grammar one-third of year or one day each week for year.
Mathematics, algebra with trigonometry or business arithmetic.
Latin, Virgil.
German or French or Spanish.
History, American, with civics and elementary economics.
Science, physics or chemistry.
Agriculture.
Business training.
Domestic science.
Instruction in school organization and methods of teaching.
Music.
Physical training.

In the above scheme all are to take the English courses indicated. This would include the course in English history in the third year. To preserve a fair balance the following may also be included in the curriculum of each pupil: History, ancient and American, with civics and elementary economics; the first and second courses in mathematics; two full-year courses, or an equivalent amount, in science; three years of foreign language, with at least two, and preferably all, of the same language. This makes a total of thir-

³In case European history is offered, the emphasis should be on literature with occasional reference to English history.

teen out of a possible sixteen units besides music and physical training, which should be extra work over and above sixteen. At least two of the remaining three units should be devoted to one of the industrial courses—manual training, agriculture, domestic science, or business, with the possibility of one of these two units for a teacher's course. All pupils should further be required to take drawing and art work at least twice a week during the first year. If necessary, time for this may be taken from ancient history or the science work.

It will readily appear that the type of programme will be determined chiefly by the particular industrial course, science courses, or foreign-language courses chosen.

In the case of those schools which may prefer a wider election any or all of the prescriptions suggested may be removed, throwing the field open, subject only to the necessary sequences.

It is also possible to modify some of the courses by limiting them to fewer than five periods a week. Ancient history, for instance, may be limited to four periods, or even three if given in the second year. First- and second-year English, and third- or fourth-year foreign-language work may also be limited to four periods. In this way a somewhat wider opportunity may be offered to individual pupils.

The only other condition which remains to be provided for is the small high school with too few teachers to offer electives. In such a case the prescriptions necessary to preserve a balanced programme would be as above; while the particular industrial, foreign-language, or science courses should be determined largely by the dominant local conditions and demands.

Definitely outlined, such a programme would be as follows:

First year—

- English, composition and classics.
- Mathematics, elementary algebra with corresponding processes in arithmetic.
- Foreign language (Latin or German).
- Drawing and art work.
- Ancient history or science or manual training.
- Music.
- Physical training.

Second year—

- English, composition and classics.
- Mathematics, plane geometry.
- Foreign language (Latin or German).
- History or science or manual training or agriculture and domestic science.
- Music.
- Physical training.

Third year—

History, English, with history of English literature.

Theme work and debate based on history. Outside reading of historical classics.

Mathematics, geometry and algebra.

Foreign language (Latin or German).

Science (physiography or chemistry.)

Manual training or business training or agriculture and domestic science.

Music.

Physical training.

Fourth year—

English, classics, with theme work and rhetoricals.

Grammar one-third of year or one day each week for year.

History, American, with civics and elementary economics.

Science, physics.

Foreign language or agriculture and domestic science or business training or teacher's course.

NOTE.—In all cases where alternatives are offered it is understood that only one is to be selected for a given programme; and this selection is to be such as to show a logical sequence where such is apparently designed.

IS MODERN LANGUAGE TEACHING A FAILURE?

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Probably the greatest value of egotism is to prevent us from becoming pessimists. Within limits a certain amount of egotism is essential. We all despise the conceited prig; he sees excellence only in himself. We feel pity for the man who has no respect for his own worth and the dignity of his calling, or who is always dwelling on faults and failures. He lacks perspective. He never surveys his work from a distance, and therefore unfits himself to be a fair and honest judge. Every man who is attempting a work worth the doing should bring to his task a mind sufficiently poised to enable him to judge calmly the value of his labor.

These general truths hold good in education as well as in other professions. Amid the changes in method and requirement, amid the criticism from many quarters, it is necessary not to become discouraged, but to face the problems as they arise, and seek to solve them. What is more, in moments of despondency a writer should not draw conclusions universally valid from the experience of himself and a few others, particularly when widely inductive facts are at hand. Such conclusions are extremely likely to mislead, especially if colored with personal bias, or affected by conditions which do not measure up to an impossible ideal.

Such in brief is the judgment of one reader, after a careful perusal of Professor Grandgent's interesting paper in the September issue of the *School Review*. This article deserves much praise. Its style is pleasing, even fascinating at times; its logic, granting the premises, is convincing; and it states with unusual force and clearness many old and new truths. The whole discussion, however, is based upon the assumption that modern-

language teaching is a failure. An appeal to individual experience constitutes the only ground of this assumption; no statistics, no generally accepted facts to prove, or to tend to prove, such a proposition are brought forward. Having thus assumed that modern-language teaching is a failure. Professor Grandgent explains why it fails, and what remedies should be applied to secure as good results in the modern languages as in the classics. Now a teacher may have too exalted an ideal, may expect too much of his students; or his memories of early attainments in the classics may become magnified with passing years; or he may fail to compare, statistically, the results of examinations in several departments. In a discussion of this kind individual experience and the personal equation of the teacher should largely be eliminated; we must seek other and surer premises upon which to base our conclusions.

Fortunately the data for a comparison of the preparation for college in the modern languages and in the classics is at hand. In the number of papers examined, in the territorial distribution of the candidates, in the number of years covered, in the standard of the examinations, in the thoroughness and fairness of marking the papers—in all that goes to make up a thorough test of students' ability and knowledge, in all these conditions the data of which we make use are unquestioned. The examinations of the college-entrance examination board are accepted by nearly every college in the United States, and the results of these examinations have been most carefully tabulated and published. We may therefore regard as authoritative the testimony which these records give us; for it is presumed that the examinations in all subjects are equally representative and difficult, and that a mark of 90 per cent. in Latin stands for the same degree of proficiency, according to the interpretation of the requirements, as 90 per cent. in German. To this I believe everyone acquainted with the facts will readily assent; otherwise the board's questions would be faulty and partial. But any objection is silenced by the wide acceptance of these examinations. Further, if we take these records, not for one year only, but for a number of years, we eliminate any objec-

tions that may arise from the shortcomings of one examination, and thus our conclusions have much greater validity.

TABLE I

	Year	Number Examined	90-100 per cent. Ratings	75-89 per cent. Ratings	60-74 per cent. Ratings	50-59 per cent. Ratings	60-100 per cent. Ratings	50-100 per cent. Ratings
Greek.....	1903	1,006	7.0	27.7	31.1	7.8	64.8	72.6
	1904	917	10.6	26.7	29.3	8.6	67.6	76.3
	1905	1,045	7.2	26.9	29.2	9.0	63.3	72.2
	1906	1,083	3.4	20.9	29.5	9.5	53.7	63.3
	1907	1,082	9.1	28.1	27.0	10.6	64.2	74.9
Latin.....	1903	3,860	3.9	16.4	29.3	12.7	49.4	62.2
	1904	4,117	5.9	25.6	30.8	10.3	62.6	72.9
	1905	5,666	5.8	25.8	31.1	8.4	62.8	71.2
	1906	5,693	3.4	17.5	29.0	10.0	49.9	59.9
	1907	6,101	3.4	15.4	29.1	13.6	47.9	61.5
German.....	1903	964	6.9	24.5	35.9	9.7	68.1	78.6
	1904	1,045	5.6	25.2	35.9	10.6	65.9	75.6
	1905	1,235	6.8	29.1	31.7	12.2	67.6	79.8
	1906	1,260	2.9	23.3	34.7	14.2	60.8	75.0
	1907	1,629	4.7	22.5	30.1	15.0	75.3	72.3
French.....	1903	964	1.3	15.0	33.8	14.9	50.2	65.0
	1904	1,046	2.7	17.1	32.7	15.7	52.7	68.4
	1905	1,185	2.2	19.2	28.8	18.9	50.2	69.1
	1906	1,295	2.2	15.7	39.3	16.4	57.1	73.6
	1907	1,681	2.2	3.6	32.1	13.3	51.2	64.6

The accompanying Table I is taken from the reports of the secretary of the examination board for the years 1903-7 inclusive. Especial attention is called to the ratings above 60 per cent., and those of 90-100 per cent. The one gives us the number generally accepted as prepared for college; the other indicates the highest quality of preparation. So far as the number of pupils who are capable of passing the entrance examinations is concerned, German ranks higher than any other subject under consideration. Greek comes next, while French takes precedence of Latin, winning out by a considerable margin in three of the five years. Certainly this does not look like poor instruction in French and German, or that modern-language teaching is a failure. Right here is where the value of reliable and widely inductive statistics comes in, for the average teacher,

out of respect for the past and its traditions, would readily admit that the classics are better taught than the modern languages. This point has been admirably discussed by Professor Grandgent. Now, I am a teacher of the classics myself, and believe most profoundly in their educational value; but there is no escape from the conclusion, drawn from an examination of so many thousands of papers, that the modern-language teachers are doing their work a little better than the teachers of the classics.

So far we have taken into account only the ratings above 60 per cent. We now turn to the ratings of 90-100 per cent., which is the test of the highest quality of teaching. Here we find the order of excellence is reversed; Greek is ahead of German, while Latin stands higher than French; German has a very decided lead over Latin in every year but one, while French is very low indeed.

Having established the two facts that pupils are as well prepared in German as in Greek, and that the general preparation in French is superior to that in Latin, the remainder of this paper is devoted to finding out the reasons why advanced French makes such a poor showing. With this in view I have prepared the accompanying Table II giving the 90-100 per cent. ratings for 1903-7 inclusive, of such subjects as are generally taught during the last year of high school, omitting mathematics. In any consideration of this table we must keep before us the different requirements in the modern languages and in the classics. In the latter the examinations are partly on the work prepared in the classroom, and partly on sight translation; in the latter the translation is of passages which the student is not expected to have read. This in itself makes the classical examination much the easier. Add to this the greater difficulty of the prose composition, and we find that the modern-language examination is relatively, i. e., in proportion to the years of preparation, very hard. But more of this later. The chief thing to remember is that, inasmuch as the modern-language paper includes sight translation and prose composition, we must also include sight translation and prose composition in forming our estimate of the quality of work done in the ancient languages.

TABLE II

	1903	1904	1905	1906	1907	
English.....	4.5	4.0	1.2	2.0	2.3	
History.....	2.9	2.6	2.4	4.8	3.1	
Adv. French.....	1.9	2.7	
Adv. German.....	10.6	1.7	1.7	1.8	
<i>Aeneid</i> i-vi and sight	
translation.....	0.0	0.0	Not offered until 1906
Adv. Latin composition	1.5	2.1	0.5	1.1	0.7	
Greek (<i>Iliad</i> i-iii).....	3.3	18.9	3.8	1.5	9.7	
Greek composition.....	7.3	7.4	3.9	1.5	4.1	
Greek sight translation	
of poetry.....	1.1	0.0	0.0	Not offered until 1905
<i>Aeneid</i> i-vi.....	5.1	6.1	3.6	2.8	2.4	

From Table II it is clear that Greek takes precedence of German for three of the five years, while Latin is ahead of German in one year only—1904. But turning to a comparison of Latin and French, it is a curious fact that during the years 1903-5, no candidate in advanced French received the rating of 90 per cent. Yet we find this interesting situation; that for the years 1906 and 1907 the percentage of ratings above 90 per cent. has been higher in French than in Latin. It is also an interesting fact, and one worthy of serious and careful investigation, that the total percentage of 90-100 ratings has fallen off very materially—about 35 per cent.—since the first examinations of the board. Now, these facts clearly prove two things: first, that the teaching of French has greatly improved during the past few years; and secondly, that instruction in the classics has not held its own, a condition which holds true of several other subjects as well.

A cursory glance at the other two subjects given in the table will show that history has held its own, while English has lost nearly 50 per cent. Why should this be?

It seems to us, in justice to the teachers of French, that a comparison between the requirements in Latin and in French might well be made. If it can be shown that the requirement for advanced French is much more rigid than for Latin, then the teachers of French deserve very great credit for their excellent showing in the examinations of the past two years.

I. THE DIFFICULTIES OF MODERN AND ANCIENT LANGUAGES

In discussing this point, Professor Grandgent says:

Our modern languages are fully as hard as the ancient, and require to be studied just as industriously. I do not believe there is or ever was a language more difficult to acquire than the French; most of us can name worthy persons who have been assiduously struggling with it from childhood to mature age, and do not know it now; yet it is treated as something one can pick up offhand.

This is a most excellent comparison of the difficulties. To learn a language so as to write it rapidly, to speak it fluently, and to translate it readily and idiomatically, all in three years' study, giving only one-fourth of the school time to that language is certainly a most remarkable feat. And when that language is fully as difficult as either Latin or Greek the performance of the teacher who succeeds in having his pupils attain a higher standard than the pupils who study Latin attain is certainly worthy of all commendation.

II. QUANTITY OF WORK REQUIRED

It is only fair to compare the third-year work in Latin with the third year of French. During this year seven orations of Cicero and possibly 2,000 lines of Ovid are usually read, making in all about 150 pages. Now the French requirement is from 400 to 600 pages, or from three to four times as many pages. But what of the thoroughness of the work done? An effort must be made to have the quality equally good with the Latin.

In respect to composition, there can be no comparison, the French being far and away the more difficult. The unusual words are much oftener supplied in the Latin examinations. How many Latin teachers could translate into Latin a selection from Irving's *Legend of Sleepy Hollow*, and write a letter of from 100 to 200 words describing the recent earthquake in San Francisco? I venture the assertion that even after years of study in secondary school and college, after teaching the subject to many classes, not 1 per cent. of the Latin teachers could obtain the rating of 90-100 per cent. in such a text. And yet the French pupils are expected to be able to do so after three years of study.

But this is not all. Our pupil in French must, as we have seen, read three or four times as many pages, must be far more proficient in composition, but he must also do what is not attempted in Latin, namely, carry on an ordinary conversation in French, attend recitations in which the language of the classroom is French, understand explanations of difficult points of syntax, and reply in French. This is reaching a point of excellence to which few if any Latin professors outside of the priesthood attain.

In consideration of the vastly more difficult and diversified requirement in French, the marvel is, not that better results are not obtained, for they are equally good if not better than in Latin, but that any pupil is able to pass the advanced French examinations. Great credit is certainly due the modern-language teachers, for they are doing a most excellent work. What is sadly needed is a restatement and abridgement of the modern-language requirement, with an agreement upon the authors to be read. The classical course gains its disciplinary value from its solidarity. If modern-language teachers could once reach a fair degree of unanimity among themselves as to what to teach, they would greatly enhance the value, both linguistic and disciplinary, of their subjects.

EDITORIAL NOTES

The recent movement looking toward the organization and development of industrial education as a part of our system of popular education has

*REFORMS IN THE
CURRICULUM OF
THE SECONDARY
SCHOOL*

brought out clearly the importance of the subject. We may confidently look forward to a period of discussion and experiment resulting from the present agitation. It would be a wise man who could foretell just what the outcome will

be. Meanwhile, it may not be amiss to consider the situation in our secondary schools likely to be affected by any changes in the direction indicated.

Secondary education in America is just now reaching the close of a period of marked reconstruction extending roughly over a quarter of a century. At the beginning of this period there was the clear recognition of the need of regarding secondary education not merely as a preparation for college or the professional school but as designed to furnish to pupils of high-school age the kind of training that their development as members of society would in the nature of things demand. Two obstacles were felt to stand in the way of reform, the narrow traditional curriculum and the influence of the college which made departure from that curriculum extremely difficult. A similar situation in the colleges had been met by the introduction of the elective system. History repeats itself in the case of the secondary schools. The sciences, modern languages, manual training, domestic science, and drawing became parts of our accepted high-school curriculum. It is interesting to note that the colleges, despite the fact that they had a like experience, were not always found on the side of those who struggled for the recognition of these new subjects by the high schools. Today at the close of the period these new subjects are generally recognized and accepted by the colleges. A second feature of the progress of this period is the development of the unit system and the definition of the various units made by different committees of our educational associations and learned societies. Our textbooks, too, have been rewritten to accord with the demands thus formulated. Along with these changes there has come an elevation in our standards of scholarship, particularly in history and the sciences, in keeping with the great advance made in our colleges in the teaching of these subjects.

Recognizing to the full, however, the great gain marked by the changes indicated above, one familiar with the situation is forced to ask himself whether secondary education is any more free to consider and solve its own problems than it was twenty-five years ago and whether the elective system and the addition of new subjects have led to an educational organization of our secondary schools that secures the highest efficiency. The writer makes bold to maintain that, in spite of the changes which were, perhaps, the only possible next step, the secondary school is now as before

under the unwarranted domination of the colleges and that a real educational solution of the problem of secondary education has not been reached.

Let us consider the two great changes effected during the period just drawing to a close. The elective system was defensible only as a military measure. As long as the old curriculum held the field and

THE ELECTIVE SYSTEM

occupied the time of a student who desired to follow it, the new subjects could come in only as electives and for those who wished to depart from the old. The new subjects had to be organized, the technique of instruction had to be worked out, teachers had to be trained, before the educational value of the subjects could be assured. Now that these results have been attained, the secondary school is face to face with the fact that the election is, after all, not free either for the student who wishes to enter college or for the school that prepares for college. Each college makes its own peculiar grouping of subjects for admission and always from the standpoint of the courses which the college offers. This is especially true of colleges for women, many of which emphasize languages to the disadvantage of other subjects. It would be difficult to find any rational explanation of the groupings of our college-admission requirements other than the design of letting students into college with different types of preparation which the college can without inconvenience carry on under its existing organization. It is the college, now as twenty-five years ago, that controls.

The other great feature of our recent development is the unit system. As a temporary measure looking toward definiteness and uniformity, the system may have its justification. But educationally it is of extremely doubtful value. As it actually operates it is a positive obstacle and a further proof of the control exercised directly

THE UNIT SYSTEM

or indirectly by the colleges. It has forced the secondary schools to arrange its curriculum so as to break up continuity which is absolutely fundamental for the educational development of the student. It may be of advantage to the college to have a pupil study a subject for a full school year and to cover a definite ground. It may be vastly better for the student to have studied the subject but one or two periods a week for three or four years and to have made an entirely different selection and use of material than the one prescribed by the colleges.

The pressing need of the hour is that the colleges should accept the students from the high schools on a certificate of maturity which shall vouch for their ability to do the work of the college and shall state

THE NEED OF THE HOUR

just what the student has studied. Then the secondary school should attempt to work out a curriculum on educational lines. It should ask itself whether a boy or girl can be educated in the largest sense who omits during four most important years a continuous contact with those phases of human thought and endeavor that pass under the names of history, language, and literature, science, art, and industry. Our present secondary education is a chaos.

W. B. O.

BOOK REVIEWS

Growth and Education. By JOHN MASON TYLER. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin, & Co., 1907. Pp. xiv+294.

In this book is brought together a great deal of material upon the growth of the body and its organs from infancy to maturity and to some extent the relation of these facts to education. The discussion opens with a forceful comparison of the life led by the average city-bred child of today with that of the child of fifty to a hundred years ago. Then the open-air life of the farm and country met fairly the needs of physical education. The child of today spends an excess of time indoors and with it does too much mental work. Various defects of the modern situation, from the point of view of proper child-development, are presented with convincing clearness. Physical development is held to be the prime business of the child at every age, rather than the attainment of any sort of mental proficiency.

After several chapters on growth and disease, the author discusses at length the physical and mental characteristics of the different periods from infancy through the high school. After this are chapters on the necessity of more attention to physical training and gymnastics in the school and one upon the particular value of the various manual arts for filling, in a measure, the prevailing deficiency of present-day education.

The book contains much material and makes a most forceful plea. If we may venture to suggest any criticisms, we should say that in general there is too much massing of data without special interpretation, so that the reader is often "at sea" with reference to the meaning and even the validity of the data hurled upon him. Then, again, the author too frequently drifts from his main theme, "growth," to a discussion of psychological and pedagogical problems not at all related to it, and while these discussions are sensible they are quite general and often trite. It is also to be regretted that he could not have correlated more closely the detailed physical data presented with educational method and precept. There is certainly a too frequent tendency to mass unrelated facts or to pass easily from a physiological fact to a psychological one having at best only a remotely hypothetical relation to it, e. g.: "The tides of religious feeling are at their flood at fourteen and sixteen when the girths and the lung capacity have their accelerated increase" (p. 201). There is also a marked tendency, the more remarkable because the author is by vocation a scientist rather than a philosopher, to offer the veriest guesses as if the serious hypotheses of science. He tells us, for instance, "A larger scope for athletics during these earlier years would probably lead to a more moderate and temperate enjoyment of them afterward. Inoculation often lessens the virulence of disease" (p. 217). Certainly a curious analogy. The book is distinctly weakened by the introduction of such obscure speculation as the following: "Then, probably about the age when our arboreal ancestor was approaching maturity (between seven and nine?), the rapid growth

of the legs is at present far from complete. Sexual maturity is deferred until the growth of the legs is nearer completion. But for a time the legs must outgrow the trunk, so to speak. Expenses threaten to exceed income. There must be a readjustment and increase of trunk length to meet the new demands. . . . Between eight and thirteen inclusive in the boy, and a little earlier in the girl, there is a time when the growth of the legs has disturbed the economy of the growth of the body. The disturbance is usually not great enough to affect life. The death rate continues to decline. But it produces a temporary weakness, and a tendency to various disorders. Hence morbidity rises until increase of girths and of trunk length, at fourteen and sixteen in the boy, restores the proper balance." Or, "If, as we have reason to believe, the forearm centers in the brain are developing rapidly about eight, those of the fingers probable (?) mature a year or two later. The development of the centers of thought and will must wait for the completion of the lower and essential portions" (pp. 153, 154, 155).

One feels in reading the book that the author is so completely in bondage to the recapitulation idea, significant though it may be, as to be unable to fairly face present problems and evaluate present difficulties. To give but a single instance of the way this prepossession limits the discussion quite artificially, little is said of the eye, and nothing is given of recent scientific conclusions regarding the physiological maturing of that organ, and yet it has most important bearings upon current school practice.

The work contains an extensive classified bibliography, tables, and an index.

IRVING KING

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First Book in Latin. By ALEXANDER JAMES INGLIS AND VIRGIL PRETTYMAN.
New York: Macmillan, 1907. Pp. 301. \$1.00.

To the teacher who feels the need of numerous exercises for Latin conversation in the beginners' book, this *First Book in Latin* will strongly appeal. At the end of each of its sixty-five lessons are several questions in Latin, the answers to which are usually to be found in the connected Latin of the lesson. This connected Latin will attract another body of teachers, for it gives in all except the first ten lessons a simplified form of the Belgian War (Caesar, ii, 1-15) and of the Helvetian War (Caesar, i, 1-29). The remaining features of the book are quite similar to the average first-year book. Each lesson has a paradigm or rule, a vocabulary of about ten words, about six lines of detached Latin sentences, the same amount of connected Latin, and ten lines of English sentences, besides the conversation at the end. The sixty-five lessons are preceded by an introductory lesson on pronunciation. They are followed by the appendix of forms, the appendix of rules, the two vocabularies, and the index. One cannot commend too highly the completeness and helpfulness of the English vocabulary and of the index. The Latin vocabulary of 650 words, mostly from Caesar, is admirably selected.

The connected Latin sentences mentioned above occupy a central place in the plan of the book. One of their purposes is to serve as an interesting and attractive approach to Caesar. They are simple and interesting, and may be valuable if they do not dull the pupil's interest in the narrative of the Gallic

War itself by taking away its newness. The connected sentences are also intended to take the place of the supplementary reading usually found in such books. In this regard they are a success. Another of their purposes is, as stated by the authors, to provide "review work in construction, thus making it possible to devote the detached Latin sentences exclusively to the topic of the particular lesson." In this regard they seem to be a partial failure. These exercises, although intended to give review, do not in a strict sense do so. Only one exercise out of every three furnishes a single example of the principle explained in the lesson immediately preceding. By thus neglecting this first and best opportunity for reviewing, they furnish only a haphazard review, not a systematic, thorough one. The six lines of detached Latin sentences in each lesson, and the conversation exercises make no pretence of providing review and the English exercises often furnish only one sentence dealing with the preceding lesson. Thus through the failure of the connected Latin to provide for proper review there is no thorough review in the book.

The book, then, is composed of sixty-five units, each fairly strong and accurate in itself, but not welded together into an effective whole. Among minor points worthy of commendation may be noted the following: the union of third declension *i*-stem and mixed-stem words under the name *i*-stems; the simple rule for the ablative of comparison, requiring no footnote to explain it; the presence of a complete paradigm of *filius*, that arch enemy of the young linguist; the careful distinction between the adjective and substantive meanings of the pronouns; lastly, the absence of puzzle sentences.

The red cover with its gilt lettering, and the text with its wide spacing between words, challenge attention without offending the eye. As pictures are lacking, the map of Gaul is the sole example of the engraver's art. There are almost no typographical errors. A careful search has revealed only two, both trivial; the omission of an interrogation point at the foot of p. 264 and the occurrence of the number 207 in place of the more direct 212 near the foot of p. 295.

HOWARD F. TAYLOR

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Helps to the Reading of Classical Latin Poetry. By LEON J. RICHARDSON.
Boston: Ginn & Co., 1907. Pp. 66. \$0.50.

"The Latin student, already grounded in simple prose and now approaching the poets, should hear Latin poetry read in large masses by a reader competent to give fair enunciation and expression; and then, while the sounds are still ringing in his ears, he should read for himself." Toward reaching this goal a book can do no more than give assistance, and that is all that is attempted in this one. The first twenty-one pages contain a discussion of rhythm as it appears in poetry, its nature, the means it employs, its relation to meter and to the expression of thought. The illustrations are here almost entirely English, which is sufficient to make the author's meaning clear, but it leaves the reader an unnecessary distance away from the *viva voce* reading of Latin poetry itself. Abundant Latin illustrations should also have been given.

The last part of the book deals with the various details of scansion—syllables, feet, cola, etc., somewhat more fully than the grammars, and often

in a suggestive and helpful way. The citations from ancient grammarians are not too numerous, and are well selected. In the treatment of the syllable the results reached by Professor Dennison in his article, "Syllabification in Latin Inscriptions" are incorporated, and in the chapter on the hexameter a table is given (compiled from La Roche, *d. Hexameter bei Vergil*), which shows how often each type of hexameter is used in the *Aeneid*. The commonest of all, we learn, is that which has a dactyl in the first and fifth foot, then those with a dactyl in the first, second and fifth, in the first, third and fifth, etc.

For the teacher's purposes this part of the book might have been greatly improved by the addition of a full and fair statement of some of the methods actually employed in oral scansion, together with some of the arguments made to support them. A Latin teacher should at least have an inkling that the way in which he learned to scan himself is not the only or the necessary way, but that some play must be allowed to suit individual capacity and preference. If we are to read Latin poetry as we do English poetry, we must have the same freedom also which we enjoy in doing the latter.

J. J. SCHLICHER

STATE NORMAL SCHOOL
Terre Haute, Ind.

The Development of Standard English Speech in Outline. By J. M. HART.
New York: Henry Holt & Co., 1907. Pp. x+93.

Lest the title of his little book should be misunderstood, Professor Hart has explained in his preface that the "book is not a history of the language, not even in the barest outline, but merely an attempt to show how the Englishman or American of today has come by his pronunciation." In fact the author has prepared for a larger audience the lectures he has given for some years to students of Middle English in Cornell University. Books that are the outcome of courses of lectures are not always pleasing to the reader, for they retain necessarily something of the atmosphere of the classroom and of methods of presentation best suited to the platform or the desk. But in this case, owing to the nature of the subject, there is a positive gain in clearness and simplicity of expression. The publication is the result of ripe scholarship, dealing with a subject of considerable difficulty, still unsettled in many of its details. The author has selected from the mass of material, provided by the investigations of many scholars, the most important facts and those sufficiently established, illustrating them by a few well-chosen examples, and calling attention as he passes to important or interesting exceptions to the laws of change. He has also pointed out certain peculiarities of pronunciation that are still unexplained and apparently inconsistent. Though not writing a history of the language, the author has followed the historical order, which is the only profitable way of dealing with such matters. His book consists of three chapters. There is a short introductory chapter, referring to the influence of Danish and French upon English, distinguishing the three periods—Old, Middle, and Modern English, and indicating the distribution of the language into southern, midland and northern dialects. Then comes a chapter of forty pages on vowel changes, including vowel-lengthening, vowel-shortening, changes in vowel-quality, diphthongization, and a chrono-

logical survey of changes. The final chapter deals with consonant changes, the loss and intrusion, the voicing of consonants, and palatalization. The book is neatly printed in type of good size and is provided with a full index.

It is only just to say that this booklet furnishes the best existing introduction to the subject of which it treats. There has been much need of a simple statement of the ascertained facts concerning regular changes in English speech during the last thousand years. The writer has been particularly careful to give, so far as can now be done, the chronology of these changes. Scholars have long been interested in the subject. In 1869 A. J. Ellis published Part I and Part II of his work on *Early English Pronunciation with Especial Reference to Shakspeare and Chaucer*; in 1871 Part III; in 1873 Part IV; in 1889, Part V ("The Existing Phonology of English Dialects"). Incited by this work Henry Sweet wrote an essay for the Philological Society of London (*Transactions*, 1873-74), which he afterward expanded into *A History of English Sounds* (1888). Both this work and that of Ellis contain useful word-lists. In 1892 Sweet published *A New English Grammar, Logical and Historical, Part I*, afterward condensing the historical part into *A Short Historical Grammar* (1892).

Meanwhile on the continent there was increasing activity. Men like Maetzner, Koch, Sievers, ten Brink, Kluge, Cosijn, Jespersen, Luick, and others, were making large contributions to the history of English phonology and inflection, while a host of dissertations on special points of grammar came from the German universities and, more recently, from those of England and America.

The time has now come when some of the results of this study should be easily accessible to teachers and others, interested in English speech. To them Professor Hart's book will prove a convenient and trustworthy guide in its own direction. The book presupposes an elementary knowledge of Old English (Anglo-Saxon) and some acquaintance with Middle English texts. And so much preparation the teacher of English today ought to have gained.

EDWARD M. BROWN

ANN ARBOR, MICH.

The Sounds of the French Language: Their Formation, Combination and Representation. By PAUL PASSY. Translated by D. L. SAVORY AND D. JONES. Oxford: Clarendon Press, 1907. Pp. viii+134. 2s. 6d.

It is twenty-one years since the first edition of Passy's well-known manual of the French sounds. Published originally in the interest of the spelling-reform movement, its author has steadily enlarged his field of observation and widened his interests. Only last year the Teubner house issued M. Passy's *Petite Phonétique comparée des principales langues européennes*, an exceedingly useful little book, and unique of its kind. We regard the appearance of these two publications as a striking indication of the growth of interest in the physiology of the speech-sounds of the modern languages, and as a well-deserved tribute to the solidity of M. Passy's work. Accurate in observation, cautious in generalization, and clear in exposition, he is a safe guide for teachers and students who are dealing with the foreign languages as living tongues.

The translation of Messrs. Savory and Jones really constitutes a new edition (the seventh) of the *Sons du français*, for "many hints have been added, intended

to meet the difficulties of English students," and "there have been a good many alterations and additions." Needless to say, the printing has been done with extreme care.

A word may be added upon two parts of the primer which seem susceptible of improvement in the direction of clearness. In §§ 103-5, the distinction between the expiration-syllable and the sonority-syllable is not quite clearly worked out. The student might compare to advantage the corresponding sections in Jespersen's *Lehrbuch der Phonetik* (Teubner, 1904) and, for the matter of syllable boundaries, the simple experiments described by Rousselot, *Précis de prononciation française* (1902), pp. 76, 77. The author's opinion (§ 99) that "the regularity of accented syllables has always been the fundamental principle in French versification" needs explanation and, we think, modification. In the same connection, we do not believe that a broad study of Romance metrics would support M. Passy's dictum, that "rhyme [in French] is nothing but a poetical ornament, which may very well be dispensed with."

T. ATKINSON JENKINS

THE UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

American Birds. Photographed and studied from life. By WILLIAM LOVELL FINLEY. Illustrated from photographs by HERMAN T. BOHLMAN and the author. New York: Scribners. 1907. Pp. xvi+256. Profusely illustrated.

Messrs. Finley and Bohlman have placed before the public in book form notes and photographs which they have gathered during the last decade from localities in the western part of this country. The home life of a number of birds is charmingly narrated by Mr. Finley, and that he was an eyewitness of all the events recorded cannot be doubted. There is no "nature faking" here, and the birds are treated as birds and not as beings endowed with human attributes.

Mr. Bohlman with the author's aid has furnished the photographs which constitute the framework of the book. We expect now-a-days a goodly number of excellent photographs instead of the crude cuts of former times, and we are in no way disappointed in the present case, for no other book known to us contains so large a number of beautiful illustrations. Many of these have appeared from time to time in the *Condor*.

Each of the twenty-one chapters describes one or more birds belonging to a family, and although the birds are from the West most of them are equally common in the East. We find portraits of chickadees, wrens, kingfishers, and other familiar friends painted for us by pen and camera. The chapters on the "Hummingbirds" and the "Barn Owls" are especially interesting and instructive.

Children as well as adults should like these glimpses of bird life, and after a child has seen his first hummingbird, the reading of an account of this bird such as Mr. Finley has given us cannot fail to foster his interest in these feathered gems.

ROBERT W. HEGNER

THE UNIVERSITY OF WISCONSIN
Madison, Wis.

Selected Essays of Emerson. "Riverside Literature Series." Edited by MARY A. JORDAN. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co., 1907. Pp. 324. Paper, two parts, each \$0.15; cloth, one volume, \$0.40.

Anyone who has had occasion to examine any English classics edited by Miss Jordan knows that she is a painstaking, accurate, and versatile editor. Her editing of Emerson's *Essays* is no exception. Every note is well directed and illuminating, stimulating and resourceful. No school edition of Emerson is so acceptable as is this one. The selections in the volume are: "Compensation," "Experience," "Character," "Self-Reliance," "Heroism," "History," "Politics," "Behavior," "Manners," "Friendship."

H. E. COBLENTZ

Selections from Poe. Edited, with Biographical and Critical Introduction and Notes, by J. MONTGOMERY GAMBRILL. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1907. Pp. 134.

Professor Gambrill's edition of *Selections from Poe* has many merits and some distinction. It is not a mere perfunctory work "put out" to satisfy a longing to see one's name on the title-page. It has the merit of independent criticism and the distinction of enthusiastic literary interpretation. "Ulalume," for instance, which has been regarded generally as an experiment in verbal ingenuity, is considered by Professor Gambrill as a marvelous expression of Poe's mood; a picture of a "soul worn out by long suffering, groping for courage and hope, only to return again to 'the door of a legended tomb.' . . . There is no definite thought, because only the communication of feeling is intended; there is no distinct setting because the whole action is spiritual." Teachers who wish an edition of Poe which is more than a rhapsody, an edition which has a sufficient foundation for some definite teaching, will find this volume of service.

H. E. COBLENTZ

Selections from the Poems of Oliver Wendell Holmes. Edited by J. H. CASTLEMAN. New York: Macmillan, 1907.

The one excellent feature of this volume is the number of selections. Otherwise the volume lacks distinction. We note some points in the notes which may irritate some readers and amuse others. Homer, for instance, is "reputed" to have written the *Iliad* and the *Odyssey*. Helicon is "a mountain range." On two successive pages, Wordsworth is characterized as a "great English poet;" Keats as "a celebrated English poet;" and Shelley as "a famous English poet." No other English poets are named on these pages. "Arethusa" is a name "applied to various springs in ancient Greece." It is well that the editor everywhere refers the pupil to the classical dictionary.

H. E. COBLENTZ

SOUTH DIVISION HIGH SCHOOL
Milwaukee, Wis.

The Vocabulary of High School Latin. By GONZALEZ LODGE. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1907. Pp. viii+217. \$1.50.

This book indicates the number of times each word is employed in Caesar,

B. G., i-v, Cicero, in *Catilinam*, i-iv, *de imperio Pompei*, *pro Archia*, and in Vergil, *Aeneid* i-vi.

The first division of the book presents the combined vocabulary in alphabetical arrangement, Caesar's words in black, those of Cicero in ordinary type, and the Vergilian in small capitals. Words used less than five times are printed in small type. Of those used five times or more, it is found that Caesar introduces about 1,000, Cicero about 500 more, and Vergil another 500. The author accordingly numbers these most important words from 1 to 2,000. It appears that this 2,000 forms nine-tenths of the vocabulary of all ordinary Latin.

A second division of the book makes the practical use of the vocabulary possible, by presenting the words in the order of their first occurrence.

The effect of this book on classical instruction is sure to be considerable. Intelligent teachers will not fail to take advantage of the material here presented. The exact method of using it will doubtless vary, but the facts of vocabulary are here for all who are interested in the facts, and many will turn away with relief from the haphazard vocabulary work that has hitherto been inevitable. The student will now be able to begin a notebook dictionary of his own in the first year, collecting from his beginning book perhaps 500 words of the Caesar list. In the second, third, and fourth years he can add the new words until at the end he has his 2,000. At any moment in the course he has a complete alphabetical list of all the important words used up to this time. In sight translation or in preparation of new lessons, the instructor can at a glance supply the important new words and reasonably expect the student to work out the meaning of the passage. The practice in forms and the prose composition which continue through the high-school course can be based upon these lists.

College-entrance examinations can assume a more definite character. Any ordinary passage may be set for sight translation with the expectation of accurate results, always provided that the words not found in this 2,000 be supplied to the candidate. The same principle will hold for translation into Latin.

This book takes a very important step in making scientific instruction possible on the side of vocabulary. A similar work is needed for syntax and is in preparation by the present reviewer in collaboration with other teachers.

LEE BYRNE

CENTRAL HIGH SCHOOL
St. Louis, Mo.

BOOKS RECEIVED

EDUCATION

- Addresses and Proceedings of the Forty-Fifth Annual Meeting of the National Educational Association held at Los Angeles, July, 1907.* Published by the Association, Winona, Minn.
- Report of the Commissioner of Education for the Year Ending June 30, 1908, Vol. II.* Washington: Government Printing Office, 1908. Pp. 663.
- Report of the Superintendent of Public Instruction of the Commonwealth of Pennsylvania for the Year Ending June 3, 1907.* Harrisburg, Pa.: Harrisburg Publishing Co., 1907. Pp. 582.
- The Seventh Yearbook of the National Society for the Scientific Study of Education. Part I, The Relation of Superintendents and Principals to the Training and Professional Improvement of Their Teachers.* By CHARLES D. LOWRY. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1908.
- The Next Step in Agricultural Education; or, The Place of Agriculture in Our American System of Education.* An address by E. DAVENPORT. Urbana, Ill., 1908. Pp. 22.
- Die höhere Mädchenbildung.* Vorträge gehalten auf dem Kongress zu Kassel am 11. und 12. Oktober 1907. Leipzig and Berlin: Teubner, 1908. Pp. 97. M. 1.80.
- Universität und Schule.* Vorträge auf der Versammlung deutscher Philologen und Schulmänner am 25. September 1907 zu Basel gehalten von F. KLEIN, P. WENDLAND, A. BRANDL, UND AD. HARNACK. Leipzig and Berlin: Teubner, 1907. Pp. 88.
- Technische Hochschulen in Nordamerika.* Von SIEGMUND MÜLLER. Leipzig: Teubner, 1908. Pp. 103. With maps and illustrations. M. 1.25.

ENGLISH

- Translations from Old English Prose.* Edited by ALBERT S. COOK AND CHAUNCEY B. TINKER. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1908. Pp. 296. \$1.25.
- Words and Sentences, including a Review of Grammar.* By ALFRED M. HITCHCOCK. New York: Henry Holt & Co., 1908. Pp. 89.
- The Writing of English.* By P. J. HARTOG AND MRS. AMY H. LANGDON. New York and London: Oxford University Press, 1907. Pp. 164.
- The Essays of Francis Bacon.* (Riverside Literature Series.) Edited, with introduction and notes, by CLARK S. NORTHUP. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co., 1908. Pp. 227. Cloth \$0.40; paper \$0.30.
- Selected Poems and Songs of Robert Burns.* (Macmillan's Pocket Classics.) Edited, with notes and introduction, by PHILO MELVYN BUCK, JR. New York: Macmillan, 1908.
- Dickens' Tale of Two Cities.* (Merrill's English Texts.) Edited, with introduction and notes, by JULIAN W. ABERNETHY. New York: Chas. E. Merrill Co., 1908. Pp. 634. \$0.50.

The "First Folio" Shakespeare (3 vols.): *Othello, The Tempest, The Winter's Tale*. Edited, with notes, introduction, selected criticisms, etc., by CHARLOTTE PORTER AND HELEN A. CLARKE. New York: Thomas Y. Crowell & Co., 1908.

A Summary of Punctuation. By CHARLES SEARS BALDWIN. New York: Longmans, Green & Co., 1908. Pp. 4. \$0.05 per copy; \$3.00 per hundred.

LATIN AND GREEK

Greek Lives from Plutarch. Newly translated by C. E. BYLES. New York: Longmans, Green & Co.; London: Edward Arnold, 1907. Pp. 232. With illustrations and maps. \$0.50.

Three Tragedies of Seneca: Hercules Furens, Troades, Medea. Edited, with introduction and notes, by HUGH MACMASTER KINGERY. New York: Macmillan, 1908. Pp. 310. \$0.60.

FRENCH

A Reader of French Pronunciation. By JULIUS TUCKERMAN. Chicago and New York: American Book Co., 1908. Pp. 128. \$0.50.

Les plus jolis Contes de Fées. (For elementary classes in French.) Edited, with vocabulary, by JULES LAZARE. Boston: Ginn & Co. Pp. 130. \$0.35.

Maistre's Les prisonniers du Caucase. Edited, with introduction and notes, by CHARLES WESLEY ROBSON. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1907. Pp. 72. \$0.30.

About's Le roi des Montagnes. Edited, with introduction, notes, composition exercises and vocabulary, by OTTO PATZER. New York: Henry Holt & Co., 1907. Pp. 315.

GERMAN

German Composition. (With notes and vocabulary.) By PAUL R. POPE. New York: Henry Holt & Co., 1908. Pp. 205.

"The Vicar of Sesenheim:" Extracts from Books IX-XII of Goethe's "Dichtung und Wahrheit". Edited, with introduction, notes, and vocabulary, by A. B. NICHOLS. New York: Henry Holt & Co., 1908. Pp. 164.

SPANISH

Legends, Tales, and Poems of Becquer. Edited, with introduction, notes, and vocabulary, by EVERETT WARD OLMSTED. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1907. Pp. 288. \$1.00.

SCIENCE AND MATHEMATICS

Physiography for High Schools. (American Science Series.) By ROLLIN D. SALISBURY. New York: Henry Holt & Co., 1908. Pp. 531. With maps and illustrations.

Laboratory Lessons in Physical Geography. By L. L. EVERLY, R. E. BLOUNT, AND CALVIN L. WALTON. New York and Chicago: American Book Co., 1907. Pp. 246. With maps and illustrations. \$0.56.

Mathematical Geography. By WILLIS E. JOHNSON. Chicago and New York: American Book Co., 1907. Pp. 336. Illustrated. \$1.00.

Elementary Algebra. By FREDERICK H. SOMERVILLE. New York and Chicago: American Book Co., 1908. Pp. 407. \$1.00.

Graphic Algebra. By ARTHUR SCHULTZE. New York: Macmillan, 1908. Pp. 93. \$0.80.

A Scrap-Book of Elementary Mathematics: Notes, Recreations, Essays. By WILLIAM F. WHITE. Chicago: The Open Court Publishing Co., 1908. Pp. 248.

HISTORY

Charles the Bold: Last Duke of Burgundy, 1433-1477. (Heroes of the Nations Series.) By RUTH PUTNAM. New York & London: G. P. Putnam's Sons, 1908. Pp. 484. Illustrated.

PSYCHOLOGY

The Psychology and Pedagogy of Reading. With a Review of the History of Reading and Writing and of Methods, Texts, and Hygiene in Reading. By EDMUND BURKE HUEY. New York: Macmillan, 1908. Pp. 469.

The Animal Mind. A Textbook of Comparative Psychology. (The Animal Behavior Series, Vol. II.) By MARGARET FLOY WASHBURN. New York: Macmillan, 1908. Pp. 333.

MISCELLANEOUS

Modern Classical Philosophers. Selections Illustrating Modern Philosophy from Bruno to Spencer. Compiled by BENJAMIN RAND. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co., 1908. Pp. 740. \$2.50.

The Efficient Life. By LUTHER H. GULICK. New York: Doubleday, Page & Co., 1907. Pp. 195. \$1.20.

The History of Music to the Death of Schubert. By JOHN K. PAINE. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1907. Pp. 314. \$2.00.

Catalogue of Books Annotated and Arranged and Provided by the Carnegie Library of Pittsburgh for the Use of the First Eight Grades in the Pittsburgh Schools. Pittsburgh: Carnegie Library, 1907. Pp. 331.

A Selected List of Plays for Amateurs and Students of Dramatic Expression in Schools and Colleges. Compiled by ELIZABETH A. MCFADDEN AND LILIAN E. DAVIS. Cincinnati: E. A. McFadden, Box 328, 1908.

The Boy Geologist at School and in Camp. By EDWIN J. HOUSTON. Philadelphia: Henry Altemus Co., 1907. Pp. 320. Illustrated. \$1.00.

The Political Union of the United States. (Old South Leaflet, No. 186). By PELATIAH WEBSTER. Published by the Directors of the Old South Work, Boston, 1908. Pp. 29.

NOTES AND NEWS

The members of the National Civic Federation announces arrangements to send 500 school teachers abroad in a few months for the inspection of schools. This inspection will be confined to elementary and secondary schools, to manual and industrial schools, and to normal schools. Teachers are to be appointed from all parts of the United States to make this trip. Nominations must be made by boards of education, boards of trustees of individual institutions, or other appropriate educational authorities, and no applications from individual teachers will be received unless transmitted through the appropriate educational authority and with its indorsement. In making allotments, preference will be given to nominations made by those educational authorities who propose to continue the stated compensation of the person named during his or her absence, for the purpose of making this visit. All correspondence should be addressed to Roland P. Falkner, 281 Fourth Avenue, New York, N. Y.

Over fifty students in the Boston high school have been studying Esperanto in the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, and have now made application at their own school for a room in which to continue their study. They have been assigned a room in the English high school on Montgomery Street, in connection with the central evening school, and are to meet there on Friday evenings.

Advocates of re-establishing corporal punishment received a setback at the meeting of the New York Board of Education on February 26. Both the boards of aldermen and of superintendents declared against it, saying that punishment did not reform, but tended to develop hypocrites and sullen animosity. The matter was laid on the table till the next meeting.

"Attention to the physical well-being of school-children would result in immediate and great economy," said Dr. Luther Gulick at the convention of the National Education Association in Washington the last week in February. The problem is fundamental, because education must not be obtained at the expense of health; it is new in importance, because only recently has education come to dominate the great bulk of the child's waking time. The crowded condition of the cities, the lack of compulsory exercise in walking long distances to school, the constant noise and light of the city, all these create new and serious problems in the physical welfare of the children.

"It is greatly to be regretted that while drawing is often well taught in primary and grammar schools, it is neglected in the high schools just at the

time when its practice would be of highest value." So says Professor Warren in an article on art-appreciation in the *New England Magazine*. Drawing encourages accuracy of observation and should tend to develop appreciation of beauty. Professor Warren also suggests that the use of art-museums should be largely confined to the high schools, rather than to the lower grades. This use, he thinks, should be chiefly incident to the study of history and should not be too analytic.

The teaching of scientific home management for high-school girls is recommended by Superintendent Van Sickle of Baltimore City in his annual report; He adds: "I do not mean mere cooking and sewing. These are taught in the elementary grades. I refer to a sort of training of as high an order as that given to boys in the Polytechnic Institute, namely, a course in the application of scientific principles to daily life. At present the girl, in her high-school course, finds open to her but one vocational department, that of stenography and typewriting."

The Iowa School Law Commission is to be favored with suggestions collected in *Midland Schools*, from over forty superintendents and other officials. State aid for high schools of a certain grade is recommended, and in connection with this the raising of the minimum standard of requirements in the high school. "It is a recognized fact," says one, "that our high schools furnish the vast majority of the teachers in the state." A special plea is also made for the residents of the country and for the maintenance of high schools which will meet their needs and which are situated in localities which they can reach.

The *New England Journal of Education* contains an article on some interesting developments in music in Chelsea, Mass. A municipal music commission, created in January, has the supervision of this work. Frequent concerts are given for the children of all grades, in some of which the high-school glee club takes a prominent part. This glee club is recruited from singers trained in the glee clubs of the grades; it in turn sends its best members on to join the Mendelssohn choral club of the city. It is not surprising that, as the author remarks, "the people in our maligned little community are in a receptive condition as to music."

Only thirteen towns in Massachusetts are without high-school privileges. Nothing approaching this has been attained elsewhere.

"In industrial training," says President Roosevelt in an address quoted by the *New England Journal of Education*, "we have tended to devote our energies to producing high-grade men at the top rather than in the ranks. Our engineering schools compare favorably with the best in Europe, whereas we have done almost nothing to equip the private soldiers of the industrial army—the mechanic, the metal-worker, the carpenter. . . . Manual labor

can never take the high place it should take unless it offers scope for the best type of man. Progress cannot consist in the abandonment of physical labor, but in the development of physical labor, so that it shall represent the work of the trained mind in the trained body." In accomplishing this, the president says that "industrial training is one of the most potent factors in national development."

Over eight million dollars were spent by New York State for secondary education during the past year, as shown by Commissioner Draper's annual report. The annual cost per capita in the high schools was \$80.37, an increase of \$0.29. The libraries of secondary schools have been increased by some forty thousand volumes.

"As a teacher of modern languages and of Latin for many years, I protest against the assumption that Latin is the best preparation for the study of modern languages," says C. E. Arnoux in *American Education*. "Latin bears less analogy to modern tongues than any one of the modern languages bears to the rest." Neither in material nor in structure is it of as much use as any modern language. It is a formidable handicap in the learning of Romance pronunciations, and the student has to lose valuable time in unlearning his Latin before he can learn his French. Mr. Arnoux would give Latin a grudging recognition as preparation for oriental languages and as a subject for the philologist, but he would bar it from high schools altogether.

Among the problems of education forced upon the English government in India is that of the language in which instruction shall be given. The Bishop of Madras holds that the education of young India in English is a heavy burden on the people and accounts for the depressing failure of educational hopes. But, says *Indian Education*, what language is the alternative? "In a classroom in Madras we counted seven vernaculars side by side. Moreover, if the universities are not to become sectional in the narrowest sense, the lower schools must send up to them students capable of following lectures in English." Verily, America has much to be thankful for in the willingness of its foreign invaders to learn one language!

Botany and Zoölogy, as taught in secondary schools should be given a biological not a morphological trend, says Professor Borzi of the University of Palermo, in a paper translated for the *Journal of Education*. "The complications of forms are of no importance in themselves and cannot, moreover, hold the attention and interest of the young student." He would conduct the study of plants and animals with reference to three great problems, those of nutrition, reproduction, and protection against adverse influences in the environment.

The proportion of the population in high schools has nearly doubled in the past fifteen years, says the *Interstate Schoolman*. On the other hand,

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there is not a proportionate increase in the number of high-school students preparing for college. This indicates the new position of the high school—not, as formerly, a preparation for college, but a preparation for life in a much broader sense. There is little wonder then, in the emphasis increasingly placed on the less academic side of high-school training.

Industrial training should be given in the regular high schools, not in separate schools, contends William McAndrew in the *Educational Review*. He bases this conclusion on the snobbishness of the purely academic schools toward the technical schools. "If you start your industrial school apart from your established institutions you ostracize it, you make it like a school for colored children. Our New York technical high school for girls, the Washington Irving, is called in derision by the teachers and scholars of the old-line high schools the Washing and Ironing High School. Teachers who were transferred to it from a purely academic high school were distressed."

When the question of separating the academic and technical divisions of this school was brought up, decision was almost unanimously against it. President Eliot said: "The mixture of technical and academic work will give a better result than either alone." And President Hadley of Yale pleaded for the gain to society resulting from the contact of different types of students with each other.

"This affiliation," says the author, "is a valuable corrective against the one-sidedness of modern industry. Isolated industrial schools run great risk of domination by the employer."

The diffusion of education in Mexico seems to be a slow process, according to *Education* for February. President Diaz has recently been making determined efforts for the enforcement of the compulsory-attendance law. Out of a population of over twelve million there are some six hundred thousand enrolled in primary schools. There are only thirty-six secondary schools, and twenty normal schools. However, it must be remembered that 80 per cent. of the population is either Indian or of mixed race. This increases the difficulty of the problem.

Religious and denominational differences still trouble the English secondary schools. Until last August no discrimination was made in government grants between denominational and undenominational schools, says a correspondent of *Indian Education*. "The rapid advance made in secondary education in the past five years may be traced largely to the tolerance of this policy." But last August new and discriminating regulations were passed. Many comments of an unfavorable nature are being called out.

The Audubon Society is starting an attempt to organize every body of pupils in every kind of public school into a general movement for protecting wild birds. It is already in touch with thousands of teachers and boys' and girls' clubs, says the *Springfield Republican*. The children are

THE SCHOOL REVIEW

urged to build houses and prepare places for this year's bird families before the coming of spring.

In a pamphlet entitled *Forestry in the Public Schools*, issued by the forest service of the United States Department of Agriculture, H. A. Winkenwerder demands that the problems of the American people be set forth in connection with school work. "If a teacher of history does not interest his pupils in the coming elections and cause them to apply past instruction to the questions which should decide their vote, he fails to correlate the school and the world." There are few national conditions that have had a greater influence on the economic, social and political development of the country than its forests." With this fact in mind Mr. Winkenwerder asks for attention to the problems of forestry and timber supply which now face the American people. And as President Roosevelt says: "The forest problem is in many ways the most vital internal problem in the United States." History and geography furnish the avenues of introduction to this question.

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